

LANGUAGE LEARNING

A Journal of Applied Linguistics

Volume X, Numbers 3 and 4

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LANGUAGE LEARNING

A Journal of Applied Linguistics

Volume X, Numbers 3 and 4

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Research Club in Language Learning

THE AIMS OF LANGUAGE LEARNING

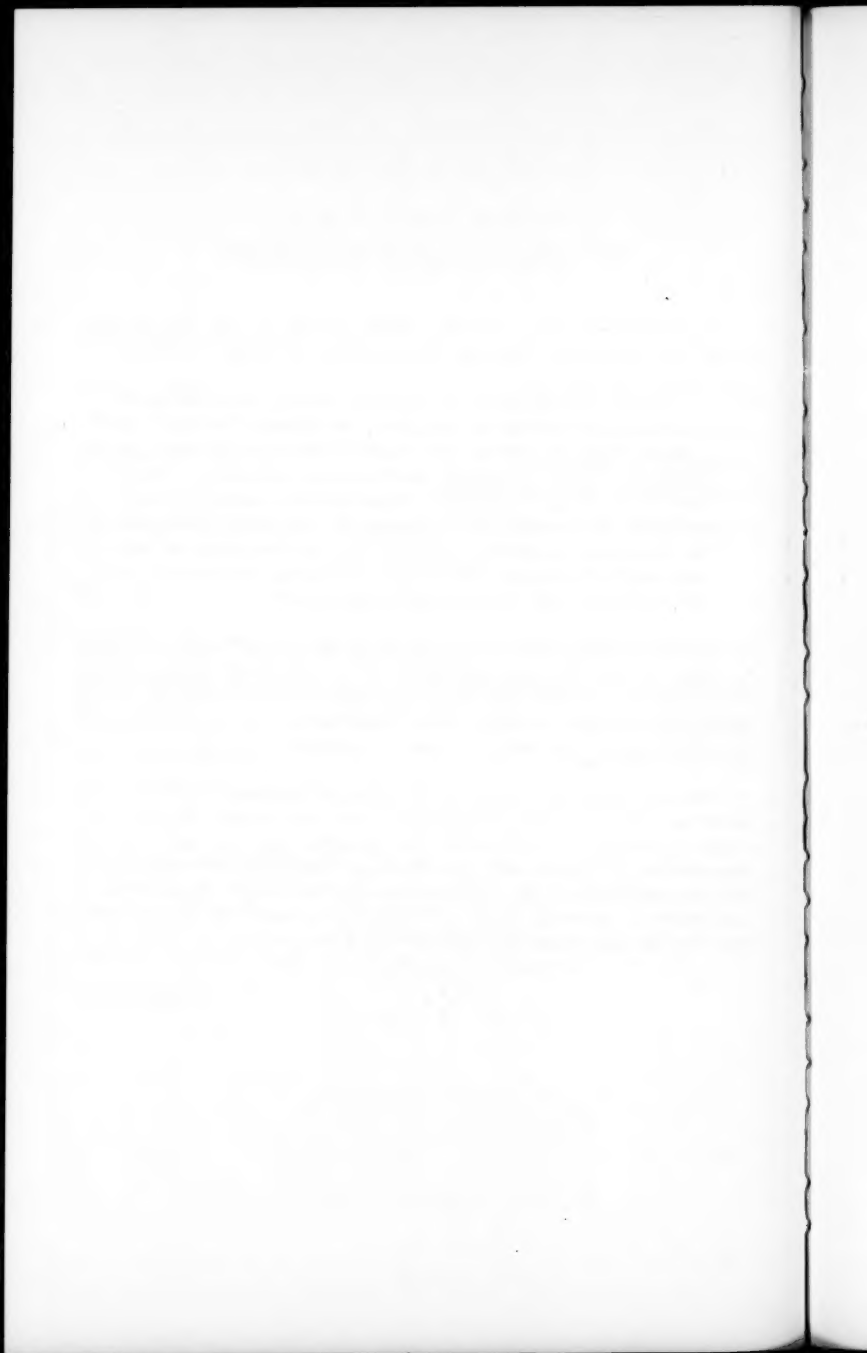
In Volume I, No. 1 (Jan. 1948), David Reed, the editor, stated the following aims for the journal *Language Learning*:

"This journal plans to feature mainly articles based on the inductive findings of linguistic science. We hope within a short time to bring our readers articles in many of the following fields: General descriptive linguistics, descriptions of specific languages, descriptive comparisons of two or more languages, the language of children, bilingualism, the teaching of general linguistics, the teaching of specific languages, teaching objectives, teaching materials, teaching methods, and educational experiments."

Twelve years later, in an editorial by Robert Lado, Volume X, Nos. 1 and 2, new perspectives in the field of linguistics were outlined, and the hope was expressed that *Language Learning* would provide its readers with information on these new perspectives from the point of view of applied linguistics.

In the past ten volumes the journal has tried to fulfill the aims set for it at its conception. As was stated above, *Language Learning* is committed to articles dealing with applied linguistics, but not to any one "school" of linguistic analysis or language teaching. No science can grow without differences of procedure or point of view. We hope to present all sound ideas concerning any phase of applied linguistics.

The Editorial Staff



THE ROLE OF LINGUISTICS AND LINGUISTIC
ANALYSIS IN PROGRAMS UNDER
TITLE VI OF THE NATIONAL DEFENSE EDUCATION ACT
OF 1958

A statement by the
Committee on Language Programs,
American Council of Learned Societies

[The customary editorial is being replaced by this statement which the editorial staff feels is of great interest to our readers. We are happy to cooperate with the American Council of Learned Societies in the dissemination of this information. —The Editors]

Title VI of the National Defense Education Act of 1958 calls explicitly for the improvement of foreign language teaching by training teachers in "the use of new teaching methods and instructional materials." It also mentions linguistics as a field in which individuals may need training in order to achieve the objectives of the Act.

The Committee on Language Programs, a continuation of a committee established by the American Council of Learned Societies in 1942 to aid in the development of foreign language training programs in the military services during World War II, and subsequently reorganized in 1946 to assist in various civilian language teaching endeavors, wishes to go on record as expressing its satisfaction at the fact that in passing the National Defense Education Act the Congress appeared to recognize the potentially important role of modern linguistic science in the improvement of language teaching.

It further wishes to make note of the manner in which the U. S. Office of Education in the Department of Health, Education and Welfare has addressed itself to the task of implementing the provisions of Title VI. The Committee is pleased that the Language Development Section of that Office has demonstrated its readiness to support experimentation in the application of structural linguistics to foreign language teaching.

Among the actions taken by the U. S. Office of Education with which we are particularly gratified we may cite the following:

- (1) the strong encouragement given to language institutes to incorporate the teaching of linguistics and linguistic analysis as an essential part of their programs;
- (2) the requirements and specifications laid down for language and area centers which give prominence to linguistic research as a tool in language study;
- (3) the awarding of contracts calling for the preparation of contrastive linguistic analyses for several important languages; and
- (4) the support given the Modern Language Association in its desire to assure the qualification of language teachers in those aspects of linguistic analysis which are relevant to language teaching methodology.

The Committee hopes that these and similar actions will be continued and strengthened in the further implementation of the National Defense Education Act.

Some of the more important ways in which foreign language teaching can be aided by linguistic science are these:

(1) *The scientific analysis of the language to be taught.* Above all, the teacher of a foreign language will be aided by a knowledge of what linguistic analysis shows about the language he is teaching. Linguistic analysis seeks to be able to specify, in the greatest precision and detail one may desire:

- (a) the system of mutually contrasting basic sounds (phonemes) which operate in the language, together with the conditions under which these sounds appear in variant forms and the ways in which the sounds compose syllables and words;
- (b) the grammar of the language, stated not in traditional terms of Western philosophy but in terms of the system of form classes, inflections, constructions, sentence-types, and grammatical rules which actually function in the language as determined by the analysis of utterances;
- (c) the system of meanings embodied in the vocabulary of the language, and which are specific to that language, and
- (d) the various forms, levels, and dialects of a language and the circumstances under which they are used.

(2) *The study of the contrasts between the learner's native language and the language being learned.* Scientific linguistics

can isolate and draw attention to the specific items in a language which are most dissimilar to corresponding items in the learner's native language and which will hence be likely to demand more attention and effort in teaching. In order to do this, linguists have recently turned their attention to the careful analysis of the English language as well as foreign languages.

(3) *The study of the physiology of sound production in the context of the significant features of the language.* The teacher will be aided by a knowledge of certain relevant essentials of the science of articulatory phonetics, which is a part of the general area of linguistics, but even more by a knowledge of the relation between phonetics and phonemics. Scientific linguistics has shown that pronunciation drills in isolation and divorced from the functioning system of a language are useless if not actually harmful.

(4) *The study of the writing system and its relation to the spoken language.* Just as linguistic analysis can study the system of sounds employed in a language, it can also study the system of writing and its relation to the sounds which it is supposed to represent. It can provide accurate information on the features of a writing system and hence supply orderly guides for the learner.

(5) *Considerations of the nature of language.* The specific contributions of linguistic science in this area can be stated in terms of a very few generalizations of far-reaching importance. Perhaps the most influential of these is the following: language as a form of human communication characteristically exists as a system of spoken communication and only *derivatively* as a system of written communication; for general purposes of language learning, therefore, the spoken language—auditory comprehension and oral production—should be given first consideration.

It has been, and will be said, of course, that many teachers of foreign languages are able to achieve good results without the explicit aid of the various kinds of linguistic knowledge outlined here. This may very well be true, but we believe that a careful consideration of the bases of successful teaching will reveal that it can often be traced to a kind of "native wisdom" or intuitive grasp of the very facts and attitudes taught by linguistic science, combined with the use of teaching materials which have indeed been influenced by the findings of linguistic science.

In any case, we are persuaded that foreign language teaching can be very significantly aided by explicit use of the best linguistic knowledge. On these grounds, we trust that the im-

plementation of the National Defense Education Act will continue to accord due recognition to the role of linguistic science in all activities pertaining to the furtherance of better language teaching.

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A PEDAGOGICAL TRANSCRIPTION OF ENGLISH

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Despite almost unanimous agreement on the theoretical arbitrariness of transcription symbols, no topic more certainly guarantees a warm discussion than the choice of these symbols when teachers of English as a second language meet. Yet this attention and attachment is probably not well deserved; students have attained a respectable mastery of English with any of various respelling systems, and indeed with no more than the traditional spelling of English.

It is certainly true that other aspects of pedagogy are much more important in language learning. A higher priority must be assigned to:

- (1) Naturalness of presentation; an acceptable model speaking at normal speed.
- (2) Naturalness of content; utterances which will be useful in common situations, arranged in an authentic sequence, such as a realistic dialogue.
- (3) Effective drill techniques; procedures which present language patterns one at a time in a simple sequence, with opportunities to repeat, expand, and later combine patterns.
- (4) Effective guidance in locating and correcting specific errors of pronunciation or grammar.

Perhaps other items should be included in the list above. The important overall consideration is that a student be given an opportunity to participate in class activities that will have relevance to his own educational aspirations and that he be able to perceive his own progress in acquiring language skills.

This is not to say that a good transcription cannot be helpful to students learning English. For many students it can be very useful in providing the guidance mentioned in (4) above, though it is doubtful that a transcription alone could provide all the guidance students need. Nevertheless, a good transcription can be useful to the teacher in presenting materials (showing which sounds are "the same", for example) and to the students in recalling pronunciations for home study. Transcription as a teaching aid, however, needs to be placed in its proper per-

spective; it is an ancillary device for use with students who have already spent years reading and writing their own language, who have become visually oriented in their attitude towards language. For other students (elementary school pupils, for example) it probably has no value.

Since transcriptions are used for different purposes, it must be recognized that different purposes justify different transcriptions. Two areas in which transcription can be especially useful are: analysis and pedagogy. Both the analyst (or research linguist) and the teacher share the conviction that accuracy, consistency, completeness, and economy are necessary criteria in the choice of symbols to represent speech sounds. But the teacher wants a symbolization that will be pedagogically effective, and this means that the choice of individual symbols is no longer arbitrary. Three kinds of associations have to be considered: (1) the associations of sound and symbol that the student has established by his experience in reading and writing his first language, (2) the associations that will be useful when it comes time for him to learn to read in the second language, and (3) the suggestive power of the symbol itself.

For example, suppose a student whose first language is Tagalog is studying English. He has formed an association between the symbolization 'ng' and a velar nasal sound in words like *ang*. When he begins to read English this association will be useful in words like *sang*. There seems to be little justification for requiring him to go through the transition 'ng' to /ŋ/ back to 'ng' in the learning process. The symbol /ŋ/, in spite of its obvious advantages from the point of view of analysis, is an unnecessary complication in this language classroom.

Or suppose an English speaking student is learning Spanish. A sound at the beginning of the English word *chilly* is sufficiently similar to a sound at the beginning of the Spanish word *Chile* that an association of these sounds is profitable. In both spelling systems this sound is represented by 'ch'. No pedagogical gain can be realized by inserting an analytical symbol like /tʃ/ or /tʃ̥/ or /č/ or /c/ between the beginning and ending experience of the student's 'ch'. The effective representation of the sound in this pedagogical situation is /ch/.

An illustration that demonstrates the suggestive value of a symbol comes from a textbook that adopted the Trager-Smith symbol /#/ as an indication of falling terminal juncture. Students eventually learned what this symbol meant, but it took a long period of training. By this time the association was established, it was abandoned in favor of traditional spelling. In

a later text of the same series, the symbol /ɹ/ was substituted. The association was established immediately because of its visual suggestion, and the energy previously devoted to interpreting /#/# could be devoted to problems of greater significance. Analytically the symbol /#/# is perfectly acceptable (though its choice was originally dictated by the very practical problem of the limitations of a standard typewriter keyboard); pedagogically the /#/# was an inept choice.

A principle to be observed in the selection of symbols for the purpose of teaching pronunciation is: other things being equal, do not teach something that must later be unlearned. Of course other things are often not equal, and other considerations frequently force a selection that at least partially violates this principle. However, there seems to be no valid reason for violating it gratuitously.

The suggestion that first language spelling habits may in part determine the choice of respelling symbolization implies that different transcription systems may be appropriate for different teaching situations, though the differences in most cases may well be minor ones. In languages with a non-Roman alphabet or writing system, little or no compromise can be made between the first and second language spellings; respellings, if used, must be based almost exclusively on one system or the other.

The following arrangement of consonants and vowels represents a symbolization of English sounds which should be maximally useful for speakers of Filipino languages learning English:¹

¹A very similar system has been used by Robert P. Stockwell in *A Contrastive Study of English and Tagalog*, UCLA, 1958 (pre-publication version circulated for criticism). Similar proposals have been made by Archibald A. Hill in "Proposed Phonemically Based Notation for American English as a Second Language" (unpublished paper circulated after the 1957 Ann Arbor Conference on Linguistics and the Teaching of English as a Foreign Language); and by William R. Slager in "Applicability of the Trager-Smith Analysis to the Teaching of English as a Second Language: The Vowel System," *English Language Series*, Vol. I, Nos. 1-2, The National Association of Foreign Student Advisors, April 1958. The transcription offered here was presented in the following article derived from an earlier draft of the present paper: Lois McIntosh and J. Donald Bowen, "A System of Transcription for Teachers of English", *The MST English Quarterly*, Vol. 9, No. 2, July 1959.

Consonants:

| | | | | |
|---|----|---|----|----|
| p | | t | ch | k |
| b | | d | j | g |
| f | th | s | sh | h |
| v | dh | z | zh | |
| m | | n | | ng |
| | | l | | |
| | | r | | |
| | | y | | w |

Vowels:

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| i | | u |
| e | e | |
| æ | a | o |

Diphthongs:

| | | |
|----|----|----|
| iy | | |
| ey | | oy |
| | ay | |
| | | uw |
| | | ow |
| | aw | |

This chart of English sounds lists symbols which depart from English spelling more for vowels and diphthongs than for consonants. This is inevitable in the structure and spelling tradition of English. Our inventory of letters is inadequate in both consonants and vowels (five vowel and twenty-one consonant letters

cannot consistently and economically represent fourteen vowel and diphthong and twenty-four consonant sounds even if assigned with maximum efficiency), but the spelling tradition has been more consistent in representing consonant than vowel sounds.

It is interesting to note that in the four best known transcription systems in use today, there is complete agreement in the choice of consonant symbols in seventeen of the twenty-four sounds.² The seven symbols where there is disagreement are /th/, /dh/, /sh/, /zh/, /ch/, /j/, /ng/, largely centered on the application of the phonetic principle, representing single sounds with single symbols except for the affricates. Thus /θ/, /ð/, and /ŋ/ have been suggested for /th/, /dh/, and /ng/; /ʃ/ or /ʒ/ is suggested for /sh/, and /ʒ/ or /ʒ/ for /zh/. The /ch/ and /j/ have been variously interpreted as two sounds or one, so /ch/ has been represented as /tʃ/ or /tʃ/ or as /tʃ/ or just /c/; /j/ has been represented as /dʒ/ or /dʒ/ or as /j/ or /j/.

The choice of consonant symbols for these sounds is easier in some cases than in others. The symbol /ng/ is logical because it occurs in both English and Tagalog spelling. The /sh/ and /ch/ are firmly entrenched in English spelling, though neither the symbols nor the sounds occur in Tagalog. The /zh/ is a logical voiced equivalent to /sh/, since /s/ and /sh/ are voiceless and /z/ and /zh/ are voiced. The /j/ is a logical choice based on English spelling, particularly since the usual alternate spelling 'g' is used for another value. The /j/ unfortunately departs from the pattern of a second symbol /h/ for the palatal series, but /jh/ is neither suggestive nor attested in the spelling. The /th/ symbolization of the voiceless dental fricative is marred only by the fact that 'th' in English spelling is both voiceless as in *ether* and voiced as in *either*. The spelling never distinguishes these two sounds. However, the symbolization 'th' is more likely to suggest /th/, since /dh/, once a conditioned variant of /th/, survives only in a limited set of words where the condition was removed, and is now a relatively non-productive phoneme in the language. The /dh/ is a compromise symbol; it is the /d/ of other transcription systems plus an 'h' from spelling tradition and from a comparison with /th/.

It will be noticed that all of the proposed consonant symbols except /dh/ are used by the Webster system of respelling for pronunciation. This is a measure of support, since the Webster dictionaries are an important part of our tradition of symbol association. The exception, the /dh/, was selected for two

²The Webster dictionary, International Phonetic Alphabet, Kenyon and Knott (adopted and followed by Pike and Fries), and Trager-Smith.

reasons. The Webster symbol 'th' is a unique representation of voicing, which has no corollary elsewhere in the system or in spelling tradition. Furthermore, there is the practical problem of producing the thin cross line on most typewriters.

The use of the symbols in the chart above is predicated on the willingness of the teacher to accept a two-letter symbolization of single sounds. The analyst certainly would not and indeed should not. In a pedagogical situation there are two strong arguments in favor of the proposal. First, teachers are disturbed by totally unfamiliar symbols for familiar English sounds. Such symbols as /θ, ð, ʃ, ʒ, ŋ/ not only look strange, but they encourage any predisposition to reject transcription outright. Secondly, since five of the seven symbols are based directly on spelling conventions, the job of teaching reading will be very much simpler. There will be fewer sound-symbol relations to change.

There are disadvantages in adopting the proposed symbols, other than bending the one-to-one relation of sound to symbol. Items like *hothouse* will have to be transcribed as /hât hâws/ or /hât-hâws/ to avoid a wrong interpretation of the sequence /t/ and /h/. However, since the sounds /t, s, z/ are never followed by /h/ without the occurrence of an internal open juncture, a space to indicate that juncture is not necessarily bad. And if it is felt that *hothouse* should be distinguished from *hot house* other than by stress markings, a hyphen can be used to indicate the compound, as /hât hâws/, but /hât-hâws/.

Another possible disadvantage that will be noted by those unfamiliar with Tagalog spelling is the occurrence of two /g/ symbols in sequence in a word like *hungry*, /hónggriy/, and of /gk/ in words like *sink* /sfngk/. These might look strange to some speakers of English, but are quite common in Tagalog words like *hanggang* and *engkantado*.

While the Webster consonant symbolization can be adopted with little or no modification, the representation of vowel and diphthong sounds needs another solution. Pronunciation has departed very far from spelling, and the Webster system remains conservatively close. The English vowel system is extremely complex but even reduced to the pedagogical minimum of 14 vowels and diphthongs the Webster inventory of 33 symbolizations with its numerous overlappings and inconsistencies is cumbersome, pedagogically as well as analytically. The present proposal makes no attempt to compromise in the direction of the Webster tradition because it was felt that this tradition is too outmoded to be usable.

If we are compelled to introduce a new symbolization of vowels, an important part of the difficulty most students have in studying English as their second language, the more reason for being conservative in rewriting the consonants. Any good pedagogical respelling needs recognition value, and this means using as many familiar symbols as can be justified.

English spelling for the vowel sounds is, of course, even worse than Webster respelling. The patterns of representation are vague and hazy. It is possible to justify almost any sound-symbol relation somewhere in the system. This is a good reason for turning toward the spelling system of the student's first language for guidance, especially if that system is reasonably consistent. Also, since many teachers have been exposed to linguistically oriented teaching materials, we might look at the pedagogical traditions that have been more recently established through the use of these materials.

The system here proposed is based on the Trager-Smith analysis,³ since this is the most productive available description of English vowel and diphthong structure. Not only is the system analytically sound, but it is illustrated by symbols with wide acceptance in linguistic literature and with extensive application in the writing systems of the world which use the Roman alphabet.

The most important single contribution is the use of the /y/ and /w/ symbols to represent the diphthongal glides, a tremendous pedagogical advantage. Not only is the syllable center correctly placed, but the direction of the glide is unequivocally indicated. The student has the useful advantage of being able to associate each vowel symbol with a separate syllable. Thus words like *coin* and *going* are unambiguously transcribed as one and two syllable words respectively in /kóyn/ and /gówɪŋ/, a fact that is obscured if the off-glide is represented by or defined within a vowel symbol, as in /kóm/ and /góɪŋ/.

Perhaps the greatest advantage is simplicity. The traditional and misleading description of long vowels (actually diphthongs) and short vowels (simple vowels) can be abandoned, and the words "long" and "short" used in the language classroom as they properly should be, to distinguish the conditioned variation of length in vowels and diphthongs as determined by (1) the following consonant sound within the syllable and (2) the correlation of vowel length with stress. To illustrate the influence of

³George L. Trager and Henry Lee Smith, Jr., *An Outline of English Structure*, Norman, Oklahoma, 1951.

a following consonant on vowel length, we can point out that the vowel of *bit* is shorter than the vowel of *bin*, just as the diphthong of *beat* is shorter than the diphthong of *bean*, a difference that can be ascribed to the /t/ and /n/. An example of a difference in vowel length conditioned by stress is shown in a sentence like: "Where'll he be?" *He* and *be* have the same vowel (the diphthong /iy/) but the sentence stress on *be* makes its vowel noticeably longer.

Furthermore it is not necessary to describe the "long" vowels of *beat*, *bait*, *boat*, and *boot* as those which usually have a rising glide associated with their length. The glide determines their classification as diphthongs. Then the glide feature of /iy, ey, ow, uw/ is properly associated with the glide feature of /ay, oy, aw/, which makes all of these a set. It has been noticed repeatedly that students respond more accurately to the mid and high diphthongs when they are associated through similar symbolization with the low diphthongs. If they encourage both structural feel and pronunciation accuracy, the /y/ and /w/ glide symbols are well justified for representing English diphthongs.

In addition to their greater analytical validity and pattern symmetry, the /y/ and /w/ glides have the advantage of being regular Tagalog spellings for those diphthongs which Tagalog and English share:

| ey | ay | oy | aw |
|--------------------------|-----------------------|------------------------|-----------------------|
| reyna beynte Leyte | may tatay bahay | akoy baboy totoy | ikaw ilaw sabaw |

The /y/ and /w/ glides in diphthongs are also used in English spelling, though in some cases with less regularity:

| ey | ay | oy | ow |
|----------------------|---------------------------|-------------------|----------------------|
| they obey grey | Magsaysay aye Albay | boy soy joy | know low throw |

The weakest of these is the 'ay' which occurs as /ay/ usually only in recent loan words, though they are readily accepted by English orthography.

Tagalog spelling tradition provides one further reason for preferring /y/ and /w/ glides. Two adjacent vowels in Tagalog regularly signal the sequence 'vowel - glottal stop - vowel'. Thus a literate Tagalog speaker will respond to the English word 'pine' transcribed /páin/ as [páʔín], whereas /páyn/ will suggest something much closer to the desired English pronunciation.

Certain modifications of the Trager-Smith vowel and diphthong symbolization are included in the present proposal for the simple vowel symbols /ɪ, e, u/. This is a modification of phonemic principle to adopt some of the symbols from the tradition followed by the University of Michigan, recognizing the fact that a lower allophone appears when not followed by a semi-vowel. Students learning English often associate their high front vowel with the English diphthong /iy/, etc. A special symbol, then, is used to give some help in producing the lower English /ɪ, e, u/.

The problem of representing the suprasegmental or intonational features of stress, pitch, and juncture is also important. It has already been suggested that the symbol /#/ is not useful, because it is not visually suggestive. That is to say, there is nothing in the student's background of experience that helps him associate /#/ with falling terminal juncture. The covering or intonational features are most effectively presented by symbols that *can* be immediately interpreted by the student.

One excellent system⁴ is suggestive of musical notation.⁵ Pitch is shown by the relative height of a 'note' on a four line staff and loudness by the relative size of the note, using larger notes for louder stress. Juncture is shown only when not suggested by the pitch contour, by a turn on the last note. This system, though simple and readily interpretable, is unfortunately beyond the typesetting facilities available for most materials, and it is costly in terms of the space it requires. Also, it puts a heavy emphasis on intonational features and to some extent separates the 'words' from the 'music'.

An alternative system is lines drawn over or over-and-under the line of print, the relative height of the line indicating the

⁴Kenneth Croft, *The K.C. Drills*, Washington Publications, Washington D. C., 1957. *Ameriphone Lessons with Stress and Intonation Markings*, American Language Center, American University, Washington Publications, Washington, D.C., 1954.

⁵Specifically, the musical notation of Western culture. Students used to a different notation might well find these materials very confusing.

relative pitch of the intonation. Lines which cross the print are very useful to the analyst making field notes, because they can be drawn quickly to show pitch change accurately. For pedagogical purposes, however, lines crossing the printed words are an unnecessary distraction from the continuity of the text, as in:

He went la ter.

He went home.

The lines detract from the appearance of the page; they seem almost to 'strike-out' the words they cut through. The system has one other drawback. The wide interval between pitch levels encourages the kind of pitch exaggeration that is typical of so many beginning classes.

The representation can be improved by moving the lines above the print and reducing the intervals marking pitch levels, and by normalizing the pitch slides within a syllable by vertical lines, as follows:

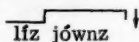
He went later. ↓

He went home. ↓

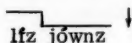
As these two sentences illustrate, terminal juncture and pitch are presented as separate entities in the notation. The arrows /↓/ and /↑/ for terminal falling and terminal rising juncture effectively guide imitation. Their use brings an awareness of junctural phenomena and the important part it plays in oral communication. Also it allows a closer transcription with fewer levels, since a terminal rise is less than one level and a terminal fall is usually on a level of its own, below level /1/.

Another problem of representation is stress. It is my belief that though three or even two levels of stress might be phonemically justified, redundancy of stress information in the transcription is pedagogically desirable. Four levels of stress should be recognized, which means three must be marked. If only three levels of stress are recognized, many important contrasts must be interpreted through pitch symbols. There is a difference in the stress patterns of *Miss Jones* and *Liz Jones*. In both cases, *Jones* is primary; but *Miss* is tertiary and *Liz* is secondary. It is true that secondary and primary can be represented by the single symbol /' / without much loss, since

primary can almost always be identified by the pitch contour. Liz Jones would normally be:

lfz jównz ↓

but when contrastive (not Bess Jones, but Liz Jones), it would be:

lfz jównz ↓

The contour shows the heavier (primary) stress on *Jones* in the first example and *Liz* in the second, since primary stress coincides here with the higher pitch marking.⁶

Even though the contrast between primary and secondary stress is usually signalled by a combination of pitch and intensity signals, it nevertheless seems preferable to mark these two levels with distinct but similar symbols, one more prominent than the other (longer, heavier, or wider), as an additional reminder of the greater intensity of primary stress.

The pedagogical transcription for teaching English to speakers of Filipino languages presented in this paper is not perfect. No system which has to be reconciled to several different and divergent criteria can satisfy all of them. The transcription has, however, been tested in the context for which it was intended. Teachers and students have been able to interpret utterances with relative ease and accuracy almost from their first contact with the symbols. In training seminars, time formerly spent on exercises to provide familiarization with the transcription system is now devoted to productive drill, primarily because of a higher readability factor.

Because there are sound-symbol associations already established in all language communities, and because of the divergence of symbol values in different communities, it is likely that a special respelling system will have to be devised for each significantly different situation. The idea of one standardized phonetic notation is very appealing, especially to teachers who will work in more than one area, but we will likely have to be satisfied with general convergence rather than official standardization. An international phonetic alphabet is almost as unrealistic as an international language.

⁶Not all utterances show a correlation between sentence stress and the highest point of the contour. A very common pattern is /lfz jównz ↓/ marked secondary-primary to show the failure to correlate pitch and stress.

If we remember that as teachers our concern is students, not systems, it will be easier to keep a problem like "which transcription to use" properly subordinated to the more significant problems of language teaching. If a respelling system is to be used, it can be tested by asking if it provides useful guidance to the student and if it assists the teacher in his presentation of lesson material. The ideal transcription is one that best fulfills these two functions.

THE STRUCTURE OF TWO-WORD VERBS IN ENGLISH¹

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This is a summary of a study which set out to investigate the structural features of the two-word verb constructions in spoken English. To achieve this objective, a large body of utterances with two-word verbs was obtained directly from native speakers of English. Each of these utterances was carefully recorded with its stress,² juncture,³ and order characteristics.

By employing stress as a criterion, two-word verb constructions used in these utterances were classified into: (1) intransitive constructions, and (2) transitive constructions. It was found that the verbal elements of constructions of the former group receive tertiary stress, whereas the adverbial elements receive secondary stress in utterance-medial position, or primary stress before a terminal juncture. This may be indicated by the following sample sentences:

Jôhn gôt dówn #

Wôuld yòu plêase sît dówn #

¹I should like to express my indebtedness to Professor Archibald A. Hill, my supervisor, who suggested the topic of this study and who helped me through its course. I am profoundly grateful to him, not only for his wise criticism and ever-patient direction of this investigation, but also for much of my instruction and training in descriptive linguistics.

²The present study assumes that in English, stress is phonemic, and that there are four different phonemic levels of stress, in descending order: primary /'/, secondary /ˌ/, tertiary /˘/, and weak /ʊ/.

³This study makes use only of terminal junctures, i.e., the single-bar juncture /|/, the double-bar juncture /||/, and the double-cross juncture /#/. The characteristics of these terminal junctures, according to Trager and Smith, are as follows: /|/ indicates "terminal sustention at the (pitch) level previously marked"; /||/ indicates "terminal rise from the previously marked (pitch) level"; and /#/ indicates "terminal fall from the previously marked (pitch) level". (George L. Trager and Henry Lee Smith, Jr., *An Outline Of English Structure*, p. 42.).

Hè fèll dówn | òn thě jób #

Ìn thě àfternóon | Ì ìie dówn #

Constructions of the latter group receive secondary stress on the verbal elements, and secondary or primary on the adverbial elements. When used medially with non-utterance-final pronoun-complement the adverbial elements receive secondary stress, as in:

Mỹ wàtch hàs rùn dówn #

Gèt dówn | fròm thât chấi #

Hè cút dówn hìs smóking #

Thě heát beát dówn hìs énergy #

Hè bôlted dówn thě machíne #

Màry bànged dówn thě stáge #

Thě mōwer mōwed dówn thě bánk #

Hè rôde dówn thě stréet #

When used before a terminal juncture or before an utterance-final pronoun-complement they receive primary stress, as in:

Hè cút hìs smóking dówn #

Thě heát beát hìs énergy dówn #

Hè bôlted thě machíne dówn #

Màry bànged dówn ít #

Thě mōwer mōwed dówn ít #

Hè rôde dówn ít #

Insofar as stress is concerned, therefore, it was observed that each group of two-word constructions falls into certain stress-patterns. Thus the intransitive constructions in the first group may take either the /^ˆ/ stress-pattern,⁴ when occupying utterance-medial position, or /^ˆ ˘/ when occurring before a terminal juncture. The transitive constructions in the second group, on the other hand, may receive the stress-pattern /^ˆˆ/ in medial position with a non-utterance-final pronoun-complement, or /^ˆ˘/ before a terminal juncture or before an utterance-final pronoun-complement.

The stress-pattern of a transitive verb followed by the adverbial use of the ad-prep⁵ contrasts with that of an intransitive verb followed by the prepositional use of the ad-prep. This contrast may occur in utterance-medial position, as in:

Thẻ hỏrses *pulled dỏwn* thẻ hỏll # (verb + adverbial use of the ad-prep.)

Thẻ hỏrses *pulled | dỏwn* thẻ hỏll # (verb + prepositional use of the ad-prep)
Thẻ hỏrses *pulled dỏwn* thẻ hỏll #

Thẻ knight *smỏte dỏwn* | thẻ ẻnemy's lẻne # (verb + adverbial use of the ad-prep)

Thẻ knight *smỏte | dỏwn* thẻ ẻnemy's lẻne # (verb + prepositional use of the ad-prep)
Thẻ knight *smỏte dỏwn* thẻ ẻnemy's lẻne #

Hẻ *whỏttled dỏwn* thẻ brỏnch # (verb + adverbial use of the ad-prep)

Hẻ *whỏttled | dỏwn* thẻ brỏnch # (verb + prepositional use of the ad-prep)
Hẻ *whỏttled dỏwn* thẻ brỏnch #

Or it may occur in utterance-final, as in:

⁴Although no occurrence of the sub-stress pattern /^ˆ˘/ appeared in the examples, yet it can occur with intransitive constructions in medial position, as in: Hẻ fẻll dỏwn ỏn thẻ jỏb #

⁵This term was first used by Professor Archibald A. Hill.

This ỉs the hầl the hỏses *pủlled dỏwn* # (verb + adverbial use of the ad-prep)

This ỉs the hầl the hỏses *pủlled dỏwn* # (verb + prepositional use of the ad-prep)

This ỉs the ẻnemy's lẻne the kủght *smỏte dỏwn* # (verb + adverbial use of the ad-prep)

This ỉs the ẻnemy's lẻne the kủght *smỏte dỏwn* # (verb + prepositional use of the ad-prep)

Thạt ỉs the brầnh hẻ *whủttled dỏwn* # (verb + adverbial use of the ad-prep)

Thạt ỉs the brầnh hẻ *whủttled dỏwn* # (verb + prepositional use of the ad-prep)

Here, as we have already stated above, the adverbial use of the ad-prep varies in stress according to whether a terminal juncture follows it or not: it gets a primary stress when a terminal juncture immediately follows; when no such juncture follows, it gets a secondary stress. No such variation in stress takes place with the prepositional use of the ad-prep: it always receives a tertiary stress whether it occurs in utterance-final position before a terminal juncture, or in utterance-medial position with or without a terminal juncture preceding. This stress characteristic is one of the significant structural signals by which a distinction can be made between the adverbial use and the prepositional use of the ad-prep.

The stress-pattern /^ˈ/ characterizes not only a verb and a following prepositional use of the ad-prep, but also a two-word noun construction such as *brẻak-dỏwn*. Whether a construction as such is verbal or nominal depends on its morphological and syntactic features. Thus, for example, in the utterance: *Thẻ cầ hầ đẻ brẻak-dỏwn* # *brẻak-dỏwn* is nominal because it is preceded by the function-word *a* which determines its nominal identity.

To show this contrast in stress-pattern between:

- (1) Verbal constructions consisting of a verb and an adverbial use of the ad-prep,
- (2) Verbal constructions consisting of a verb and a prepositional use of the ad-prep,
- (3) Nominal constructions,

the following sentences may be presented in respective order of illustration:

Shê wắ called dắwn #

Shê wắ called | dắwn thắ stắirs #

Shê gắt ắ call-dắwn #

The other structural feature of two-word verb constructions is their word-order. Insofar as this feature is concerned, it was found that some constructions always take contiguous order only, others always take noncontiguous order only, and still others may take either the contiguous or the noncontiguous order. Those constructions which take the contiguous order only include all the intransitive constructions, as in:

Hề fắll dắwn | ỏn thắ jắb #

Jắhn gắt dắwn #

Mỷ wắtch hắs rắn dắwn #

Mắry sắt dắwn #

and some transitive constructions, as in:

Thắ mắwer mắwed dắwn thắ bắnk # Hề rắde dắwn thắ strắet #

Thắ mắwer mắwed dắwn ắt #

Hề rắde dắwn ắt #

In contrast to this contiguous order-group, there is another non-contiguous order-group which is occupied by some transitive constructions, as in:

Hề trắed tắ yắll hắs wắfe dắwn #

Tắke Jắnes dắwn #

Hề trắed tắ yắll hắr dắwn #

Tắke hắm dắwn #

In addition to these two groups of constructions, there is another group of transitive constructions which can take either the contiguous or the noncontiguous order. In some instances, this choice in order is accompanied by a clear distinction in meaning, as in:

Hề jắmped dắwn thắ hắrse #

(i.e., he jumped down from the horse.)

Hề jắmped thắ hắrse dắwn #

(i.e., he forced the horse to jump down.)

Đôn't lết down thể cõach #
(i.e., don't lower it.)

Đôn't lết thể cõach *dõwn* #
(i.e., don't disappoint him.)

Thế troõps mårched down thể græss #
(i.e., they marched down a grassy slope.)

Thế troõps mårched thể græss *dõwn* #
(i.e., they trampled it down.)

In other instances, however, no such semantic distinction exists, as in:

Rõll down yõur sléeves #
Rõll yõur sléeves *dõwn* #

Gết down thấ chấir #
Gết thấ chấir *dõwn* #

Flåg down thấ cấ #
Flåg thấ cấ *dõwn* #

Shề smõõthed down thể bết-cõver #
Shề smõõthed thể bết-cõver *dõwn* #

In transitive constructions where the complement is a long phrase, the contiguous order is the common practice, as in:

Hề bết down thể brĩm ố thể hấ | thấ hề bõught lầt yếar #

Hề ghềd down thể ềđge ố thể bõok-cõver with gflt òn ỉt #

Hề phẫked down thể hấlf-dõllar with ấ hõle ỉn ỉt #

Thế police brõke down thể crĩmĩnal's stòry abõut thể rõbbery #

Pụt down yõur nầme ẫnd addrếss | ỉn Hõustõn #

In cases such as this, the noncontiguous order may also occur, but only with pitch⁶ /4/ in utterance final position, as in:

⁶I am using the four pitch levels as used by George L. Trager and Henry L. Smith in *An Outline Of English Structure* (1951): /1/, /2/, /3/ and /4/ for low, mid, high and extra-high respectively.

Hê ²bênt the brim ố the hât that hê boughl lât yêar ³²| ⁴¹dôwn #

Hê ²gluêd the êdge ố the bôok-côver with gflt ôn ỉt ²| ⁴¹dôwn #

Hê ²plûnkêd the hâlf-dôllar with ấ hỏle in ỉt ²| ⁴¹dôwn #

The ²políce brôkê the crîminal's stôry abôut the ³rôbbery ²| ⁴¹dôwn #

Pût ²yôur nâme ấnd addrêss in Hôustôn ³| ²⁴¹dôwn #

Whatever the order of two-word verb constructions may be, it was noted, as the result of grouping samples of these constructions into their immediate constituents and layers of structure, that the verbal element and the following adverbial use of the ad-prep always fall together in the same layer of structure. In contrast with such constructions, the prepositional use of the ad-prep falls in the same layer of structure with the noun-object rather than with the verb.

This result is revealed and confirmed by the structural signals of stress, juncture, and pitch. Thus in the utterance:

Mây rân dôwn the hfl #

the secondary stress on *dôwn* and the absence of a terminal juncture between *rân* and *dôwn* indicate that *dôwn* is here used adverbially and hence should be assigned to the preceding verb rather than to the following noun. But in the contrasting utterance:

Mây rán | dôwn the hfl #

the tertiary stress on *dôwn* and the presence of the terminal juncture between it and the preceding verb indicate that *dôwn* is used prepositionally and should, therefore, go with the noun which follows rather than with the verb which precedes.

In instances such as:

Hê ²plûnkêd the hâlf-dôllar with ấ hỏle in ỉt ³| ²⁴¹dôwn #

where the adverbial use of the ad-prep *dôwn* is widely separated from the verbal element *plûnkêd* by a long phrase and a terminal juncture, both elements must be grouped together in the same layer of structure, despite the presence of the termi-

nal juncture between them. This unity is signalled both by the primary stress and by the pitch contour /⁴¹/ on the adverbial element *down*.

Other evidence which confirms the unity between the verbal element and the adverbial use of the ad-prep, on the one hand, and the lack of such unity between the verbal element and the prepositional use of the ad-prep, on the other hand, is the fact that the adverbial use of the ad-prep always forms a member of the predicator, whereas the prepositional use of the ad-prep never forms such a member.

All these evidences indicate that a two-word verb construction is a combination of a verb and the adverbial use of an ad-prep.

By way of conclusion, it should be recalled that the analysis of the structure of two-word verb constructions in this study is based on strictly descriptive and formal grounds. The first step was to identify the structural signals present in the utterance which includes a two-word verb construction. Then, according to these formal signalling devices, the structure of the whole utterance was determined. After the structure had been thus determined, the third step was to give the construction proper the lexical meaning that was carried within the utterance.

The sequence of these steps is important; formal signals and structure must be clearly identified before any lexical meaning is given to a two-word verb construction since the meaning of such a construction depends entirely on its structure.

Had this procedure been reversed and lexical meaning employed to determine structural phenomena, the present study would not only have been disqualified and deprived of its objective and scientific merits, but also would have led to contradictory and invalid results.

PROPORTIONAL DRILL AS A TECHNIQUE FOR TEACHING GRAMMAR

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This paper assumes that the problems of teaching English as a second language can realistically be divided into three types: 1) Those that concern the production of vowels, consonants and suprasegmentals. 2) Those that concern lexical meanings. 3) Those that concern the shapes and arrangements of grammatical signals in utterances. It is further assumed that the best way to teach number three, the grammar, is simply to contrive to get the student to say a great number of times, and say correctly, utterances which contain the various patterns of grammatical signals, and which illuminate their relationships to each other. This paper will elaborate a single technique for accomplishing this task, a technique called *proportional drill*.

Proportional drills are based on the phenomenon *proportionality*, which appears in many areas both within and outside grammar. It is possible to discern many types of the phenomenon, but the one feature that they all share is that they can be *manipulated*. This means that a person given the first three terms of a proportion can supply the fourth, as in the following example.

| | | |
|------|---------|-----------|
| A | (is to) | B |
| (as) | C | (is to) ? |

Given A, B and C, any person who knows the traditional order of the English alphabet can supply the missing term, D. Thereafter, when given another item from the first column, he can supply the appropriate missing item from the second column.

A proportional drill for teaching grammar also consists of two sets of items. Each item in the first set is given by the teacher as a *cue*, designed to elicit from the class the corresponding item of the second set, the *response*. When the drill is properly set up, the responses are in every detail exactly those that the maker of the drill intended to elicit. The pur-

pose of such a drill is to *demonstrate* some *category* of grammar, and to give the class practice in using it. Illustration A is a proportional drill intended to demonstrate the grammatical difference between a statement and a *yes-no question*.¹

| Cues | Illustration A | Responses |
|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| The man's here. | Is the man here? | Is the man here? |
| John's sick. | Is John sick? | Is John sick? |
| They're singing. | Are they singing? | Are they singing? |
| The man he saw is sick. | Is the man he saw sick? | Is the man he saw sick? |
| I'm here. | Am I here? | Am I here? |
| He'll go. | Will he go? | Will he go? |
| They sing. | Do they sing? | Do they sing? |
| You're eating. | Are you eating? | Are you eating? |
| He eats. | Does he eat? | Does he eat? |
| The girls sing. | Do the girls sing? | Do the girls sing? |

The grammatical distinction demonstrated here is unarguably one that must be taught, for surely all teachers of English will agree that their students must learn to ask questions. But the proportion under A, as it stands, cannot accomplish the job of teaching the grammatical signals that distinguish statement from question. This drill will fail as a classroom tool because it is too complicated in several ways. Drill A may serve as a useful *goal proportion*, as a neat way of summing up what a teacher may wish to accomplish, and work toward, in some section of the course. It can not, however, be used itself as the tool of instruction because it simply will not work. Drill

¹It is not here pretended that proportional drill is something new. It has been used, in one form or another, in many texts, notably in various materials devised, and in use, at the English Language Institute, University of Michigan.

The writer's experience with proportional drill as a teaching device began at the Language Laboratory of the Air University, where in 1954 he co-authored (with John Garner) the English instruction materials (unpublished) that are still in use there, materials that use proportional drill as their primary tool for grammar teaching. Bald assertions made in this paper derive from this experience.

This paper has benefitted from conversation with Fred W. Householder and Sol Saporta of Indiana University, and with John Garner of the Air University.

A must, rather, be examined to discover what makes it hard for non-speakers of English. Then simpler drills must be devised that focus upon each particular difficulty. Finally, these simple drills must be recombined into larger and larger drills until they arrive once more at the proportion under A. By that time, if the work has been carried out carefully, the student will be in command of all the grammatical details involved under A as it now stands. He will then be able to supply the proper response to each cue under A. He will be able to manipulate the statement-question proportion.

But to devise simple drills that will ease the student past the difficulties in A, we must know exactly what these difficulties are. To discover them we must consider several of the characteristics of grammar proportions in English.²

A grammar proportion may be *simple* or *complex*, depending upon whether it demonstrates a single grammatical category or more than one. Illustration B is a proportion that involves only one category, the intonation change 231#-233//. Replacement of the first intonation by the second gives an utterance one of several meanings, the chief among which seems to be something like, "Is this what you mean?"

Illustration B

| Cues | Responses |
|------------------|------------------|
| He's going. | He's going? |
| They're singing. | They're singing? |
| She's here. | She's here? |

The category demonstrated here is a single one. This is to say that no further proportions can be made up, using the same words in the cues and responses, that would reduce the

²In pondering the difficulties to be discussed here, this writer has been much impressed by the insights into proportionality that can be gained through a study of the developing theory of transformation. Transformation theory does not have as its goal the teaching of language; indeed, its base sentences, or 'kernels', expressed in formulas, could not be used as cues in the classroom without modification. But transformation does shed light on many problems of language teaching. For an introduction to transformation see N. S. Chomsky, *Syntactic Structures*, 's-Gravenhage, Mouton and Co., 1957.

231#-233// category to two simpler distinctions. The proportion under B is, therefore, a simple one.

But by showing that B demonstrates a single category, we also show that A demonstrates more than one, for the categorical material in B was subtracted from that in A, and something is still left. This something is a category of word order, which may be indicated *normal-interrogative*. A proportion may be set up that demonstrates it alone, holding the intonation of the response to 231#. The meaning of the response items is something like, "Yes, but is John singing"; "Yes, but is he here"; etc.

Illustration C

| Cues | Responses |
|----------------------|----------------------|
| John's singing. | Is John singing? |
| He's here. | Is he here? |
| The girls are happy. | Are the girls happy? |
| She sings. | Does she sing? |
| He'll go. | Will he go? |

Since drill A demonstrates the categories of both B and C, it is complex, and its complexity is one of the reasons that it would fail as a classroom tool. Experience shows that non-speakers of English tend strongly to drop one or more categories when they attempt to manipulate a complex proportion. The prudent drillmaker will, therefore, take account of such complexity in proportions, and will apply *Step I* toward their simplification. Step I consists of making up separate simple proportions to give students practice on a single category at a time. Later, when each has been mastered separately, they may be recombined into a complex drill for further practice and testing.

But the proportion under A fails as a drill not only because it demonstrates two categories; it is complicated in still other ways. To understand its second failing we must take account of two basic kinds of proportions in English, one of which can be manipulated by a beginning student, and one of which cannot.

The proportion under illustration B can be manipulated by a beginner, even by one totally ignorant of English, provided only that he be given the first three terms of the proportion, and that he have an explanation in his native language of the game he is to play. His pronunciation will, of course, be only ap-

proximate, depending on how skillful he is at mimicry. But the point is that he will be able to make noises that correspond to the words and to the two sets of grammatical signals involved, and he will be able to make them correspond consistently. A non-speaker of English can do this because the grammatical signal in the responses (233//) presents no variants from item to item down the column. Neither does any part of any cue item unpredictably change its shape as it moves from cue to response. The manipulation is simply a matter of replacing the 231# by 233// over an item that remains otherwise unchanged. We may call such a regular proportion an *analogical* one.

But things are not so simple in all proportions. In the material under C, for example, two kinds of irregularity occur that cannot be predicted by a non-speaker of English. The /də/ of *does* suddenly appears in a response woven out of nothing, as does the /z/ of *does*—unless one prefers to consider that it is the same as the /z/ of *sings*. In either case the form of *does* is completely unpredictable, given only the cues and responses that precede it. There are, furthermore, changes in the material that make up the cue (quite apart from the category marker) when the material is carried over into the response column: the /h/ of *he* disappears; /l/ becomes /wɪl/. There is nothing in the experience of a non-speaker of English that could prepare him for these changes. They fall into no kind of analogy that is universally recognized; they are expectable only in the limited set of analogies and equivalencies of English grammar.

Proportions that contain these unpredictable changes either in the category marker or in the other material of the cue, may be called *grammatically analogical* proportions. Non-speakers of English tend strongly to make strictly analogical proportions of grammatically analogical ones. To keep this from happening the drillmaker must apply *Step II* to his materials. This procedure consists of breaking up a grammatically analogical proportion into smaller drills that are strictly analogical. Again, after each has been learned separately, the drillmaker may recombine them into larger ones of greater and greater grammatical analogy.

There is still a third way in which the drill under A fails as a classroom teaching device. It tends to lessen one of the bonus values of proportional drill: the development of an awareness in the student of function classes in sentences. There are three function classes in the various items of proportion A. In the cue column they occur in the order *subject, auxiliary, remainder*, as in the following scheme.

| Cues | | | Responses | | |
|----------------|--------|--------|-----------|----------------|--------|
| (sub.) | (aux.) | (rem.) | (aux.) | (sub.) | (rem.) |
| He | 's | going. | Is | he | going? |
| The man he saw | is | sick. | Is | the man he saw | sick? |
| The girls | are | here. | Are | the girls | here? |
| He | 'll | go. | Will | he | go? |

The identity of these three classes, and a great part of their functional significance in English, is pointed up by the very operation of the statement-question proportion: the inversion of subject and auxiliary in the response identifies the first two classes, and the remainders are identified by remaining unmoved. An awareness of these function classes is of immediate importance, for their arrangement is the signal of the category in responses like those under C. But this awareness will be of further value in later proportions like *active-passive*. In order to wring the maximum value from his drills, then, a drillmaker must do all he can to awaken the student's consciousness of function classes.

But drill A does not tend to bring this awareness as swiftly as it might. A glance at it will show the reason: the various kinds of subjects, auxiliaries and remainders in the drill are of quite diverse structure. In the subject class there are pronouns with tertiary stress, single proper names with secondary stress, singular nouns preceded by a determiner, plural nouns preceded by a determiner, and the type *the man he saw*.

In the auxiliary class we have *is*, *are*, *am*, *zero* and *'ll*.

Among the remainders there are *ing* forms, adjectives, and the word *here*.

All of this diversity is quite confusing to the student. To lessen his confusion, to take full advantage of analogy and ease the student into a consciousness of the functional equality of diverse items within a class, the drillmaker must apply *Step III* to his materials by breaking down a proportion like A into smaller drills that contain items of similar structure in their function slots. Once more, the procedure is to begin with simple drills, then to combine them progressively into more and more difficult ones.

We have now seen what opacities a proportion like A presents to beginning students of English: it is categorically complex, it is a grammatically analogical proportion, and it contains within its three function classes items of greatly diverse structure.

We have seen that Steps I, II and III must be applied to A, breaking it down into a number of smaller drills that will go smoothly as classroom drills. We have seen how these simple drills may be recombined, after each has been learned separately, into larger and more complicated drills, which may then themselves be given to the class until the students are able to manipulate the goal proportion itself. At this point the student will have gained an awareness of three important function classes of English sentences, and will have learned the important set of grammatical signals that mark the yes-no question.

But we have not specified the exact order in which simplification and combination should proceed. Indeed, there appears to be no single best order, though a number of questions about the order suggest themselves. Are there, for example, good grounds for exhausting all the types of subjects possible, while holding the auxiliaries and remainders constant? Or should remainders first be exhausted? Or auxiliaries? No definite answer based on the writer's experience with proportional drills can be given. The form of each individual drill is fairly clearly dictated by the difficulty to be overcome, but the order of the smaller drills among themselves is not rigidly fixed by any logic.

The order of presentation may best be left to the choice of the teacher, or it may be adjusted to fit other training (pronunciation, vocabulary study, structure of items within a function class, grammatical meaning of the proportion, etc.) which the teacher may wish to intersperse here and there among the drills.

But below is given one possible breakdown and recombination of the material under A. The roman numerals are not intended to mark coordinate sections; they are used only to clarify the presentation. The drills are, of course, greatly shortened.

I (Introduction of normal-interrogative order; intonation of the responses is held to /231#/; introduction of the auxiliaries *am, is, are*; introduction of the remainders *-ing* form, adjectives, and the word *here*.)

| Cues | Responses ³ |
|----------------|------------------------|
| a. He's going. | Is he going. |
| He's walking. | Is he walking. |

³[The use of a period instead of a question mark is the author's device to indicate falling intonation.—Editor]

c. (Combination of a and b.)

d. (Combination of I-n and II-c.)

| | | |
|----|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| e. | The boys are here. | Are the boys here. |
| | The ponies are running. | Are the ponies running. |
| | The girls are here. | Are the girls here. |

f. (Combination of d and e.)

III (Introduction of non-be verbs with *I, you, we* and *they* as subject; non-be verbs with plural nouns as subject; non-be verbs with *he, it, she* and singular nouns as subject.)

| | | |
|----|---------|------------|
| a. | I sing. | Do I sing. |
| | I call. | Do I call. |

| | | |
|----|----------|-------------|
| b. | We run. | Do we run. |
| | We sing. | Do we sing. |

| | | |
|----|-----------|--------------|
| c. | You call. | Do you call. |
| | You run. | Do you run. |

| | | |
|----|------------|---------------|
| d. | They sing. | Do they sing. |
| | They go. | Do they go. |

e. (Combination of a, b, c and d.)

| | | |
|----|---------------|------------------|
| f. | The dogs run. | Do the dogs run. |
| | The dogs go. | Do the dogs go. |

g. (Combination of e and f.)

| | | |
|----|---------------|-------------------|
| h. | The dog runs. | Does the dog run. |
| | The dog goes. | Does the dog go. |

| | | |
|----|------------|----------------|
| i. | He calls. | Does he call. |
| | It goes. | Does it go. |
| | She sings. | Does she sing. |

j. (Combination of h and i.)

k. (Combination of f and j.)

1. (Combination of II-f and III-k.)

IV (Introduction of *will*; introduction of subject type *The man he saw.*)

- | | | |
|----|----------------------------------|----------------------------|
| a. | He'll call. | Will he call. |
| | He'll sing. | Will he sing. |
| b. | She'll call. | Will she call. |
| | It'll run. | Will it run. |
| | They'll go. | Will they go. |
| | The boy will sing. | Will the boy sing. |
| | The dogs will run. | Will the dogs run. |
| c. | (Combination of a and b.) | |
| d. | The man he saw is here. | Is the man he saw here. |
| | The man he saw is singing. | Is the man he saw singing. |
| e. | The man he saw sings. | Does the man he saw sing. |
| | The man he saw calls. | Does the man he saw call. |
| f. | The man he saw will sing. | Will the man he saw sing. |
| | The man he saw will call. | Will the man he saw call. |
| g. | (Combination of d, e and f.) | |
| h. | (Combination of c and g.) | |
| i. | (Combination of III-l and IV-h.) | |

V (Introduction of category 231#-233//)

- | | | |
|----|---|-------------------------|
| a. | I sing. | I sing? |
| | He calls. | He calls? |
| | The man he saw is here. | The man he saw is here? |
| | (Etc. using as cues all the cues in IV-i) | |

VI (Introduction of complex category normal-interrogative and 231#-233//, using as cues all the response items in V-a.)

- | | |
|--------------------|--------------------|
| The dogs are here. | Are the dogs here? |
| etc. | |

This lesson plan systematically brings the student to goal proportion A, which he should now be able to manipulate. But our plan seems to make no provision for the teaching of vocabulary, grammatical meaning or pronunciation. However distinct conceptually these may be from the main problem, they are still inseparable from the drill in an actual classroom, and they must have some attention.

Acceptable pronunciations must be established early in a drill through mimicry. As for vocabulary and grammatical meaning, experience shows that it is valuable to prepare explanations of them in the form of handouts to be studied outside class. Such a handout includes a list of the day's new vocabulary items and their meanings, an explanation of the grammar contrast to be drilled, and an outline of the drill itself. Talk about the proportion does not increase the student's ability to manipulate it, but such talk seems to convince him that the drill is worthwhile.

Further explanations may be given at any of several points in the drill, which, because of its step-by-step composition, is peculiarly easy to interrupt. There are many logical stopping places.

But the whole point of proportional drill is manipulation of the proportion, and it is desirable to get on to cue and response as soon as possible. One workable procedure follows these stages: the teacher manipulates the proportion with the students imitating each item in chorus. Then the teacher gives out the cues, and the students, each in turn, give responses. When a particular drill goes poorly the teacher quickly goes back to the simple drills of which it is composed for further work on troublesome points. But the goal proportion should be kept constantly in view as the point toward which the class works through new simple drills and their combination.

Naturally the designer of drills of the sort we are discussing here must take account of those differences in structure between English and the student's native tongue. There is, of course, no great gain in dwelling upon features of English proportions that are closely analogous to those of the student's own language. The matters that demand the drillmaker's attention are those entire proportions in English (and the non-analogical parts of others) that are quite alien to the student's language. But it is precisely such problems as these that proportional drill is well-calculated to handle.

Given its speed in the classroom, and its form which focuses upon a single pair of grammatical signals at a time, proportional drill accomplishes the task suggested by our original assumption: that grammar should be taught as grammar, and that the way to teach it is to have the student say a great number of times, and say correctly, utterances which contain the grammatical patterns and illustrate their relationships to one another. Focusing upon this single task, proportional drill pounds away at the job as if at a drum. The drill takes maximum advantage of analogy. It moves from mimicry to response, giving the student a measure of independence that is more like real life than pure imitation,, yet the nature of the proportion subtly guides every response.

These characteristics of proportional drill, together with its universality of application to the features of grammar, argue that it is not merely one of the techniques for grammar teaching, but is in fact the best.

APPLYING LINGUISTICS TO SPEECH AND LANGUAGE THERAPY FOR APHASICS*

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In the field of speech correction one of the most interesting and challenging problems is that of speech and language therapy for adult aphasics. Aphasia may be described as the impairment of speech and language functions of expression and/or comprehension. The individual may have partial or complete loss of the ability to use speech and language symbols and/or to understand speech and language symbols. Aphasia is the result of brain damage due to injury, disease, or maldevelopment of the brain.

Although direct help in regaining the use of speech and language is the primary concern of the speech therapist, other corollary problems must also be taken into consideration in total rehabilitation of the patient. These include physical, psychological, and emotional problems which have resulted from the original brain damage and the patient's reactions to his disabilities. If the reader is interested in a more detailed discussion of the many-faceted problems of the aphasic, he may refer to the writings of Joseph Wepman,¹ Longerich and Bordeaux,² and others in this field. This paper will be concerned only with the speech and language aspects.

It is the purpose of this paper to outline suggestions for language therapy designed to present a practical approach to language retraining for aphasic individuals. It attempts to strengthen the weaknesses of other methods which have left the aphasic person with the ability to use isolated words but the inability to

*The writer wishes to express appreciation to Dr. H. H. Bloomer, Director, Speech Clinic, University of Michigan, Miss Maryanna Bender, Senior Clinician in the Dysphasia Division, and Dr. Ralph P. Barrett of the English Language Institute, for their assistance.

¹Joseph Wepman, *Recovery from Aphasia*, The Ronald Press, New York, 1951.

²M. C. Longerich and J. Bordeaux, *Aphasia Therapeutics*, The MacMillan Company, 1954.

put these words into usable connected patterns of language. In examining the possibilities for improved therapy recent thinking in the general field of language was investigated. Ideas from the field of structural linguistics, specializing in the analysis, revision, and presentation of better methods of teaching language, were found to be the most usable.

In examining literature in the field of structural linguistics two ideas were particularly applicable in planning more profitable language therapy for aphasics. The first concerns the very basic concept of the process involved in original language learning of children. The patterns of language are learned by hearing and trying to repeat them over and over again. It is particularly important to stress the term "patterns of language" not just words or structure. The second idea concerns Charles Fries'³ presentation of signals of structure as formal matters which can be described in physical terms in the study of language.

Applying these ideas from the field of linguistics the therapy suggestions to be outlined are based on three items. The first two are basic factors which were operative in the original process of language learning: (1) stimulation with *total patterns* of expression, and (2) the patient's own trial and error attempts to use *total patterns* of expression. The third involves the use of concrete cues or signals identifying the function of different kinds of words in patterns as scientifically and precisely presented by structural linguistics.

The therapy suggested does not rely on memorization of words or drill in word calling alone. The weakness of such drill lies in leaving the aphasic with the use of parts and pieces of language but the continued inability to use them in meaningful patterns. Neither does it employ the presentation of the traditional "rules of grammar" which has proved unsuccessful in bridging the gap between isolated words and their meaningful use. M. H. Scargill in suggesting that the language therapist might be able to borrow valuable material from structural linguistics summarized the latter problem as follows:

The traditional grammars, with their insistence upon "meaning" as the sole means of language learning, can be of little aid to a therapist who has great difficulty in communicating "meaning."⁴

³Charles Fries, *The Structure of English*, Harcourt Brace, and Company, New York, 1952.

⁴M. H. Scargill, "Modern Linguistics and Recovery from Aphasia," *The Journal of Speech and Hearing Disorders*, December, 1954, p. 507.

All therapy materials presented in the following outline have been prepared dealing with words as they function within a given sentence or pattern. No word is presented as a single unit and left as such. Words have been presented within the context of written sentences, written questions, spoken sentences and spoken questions. A word may be presented on a word card and discussed as an individual unit but it is *always* put back into a complete pattern within the framework of the same lesson. Different classes of words have been stressed, one at a time, together with their identifying markers and patternings. The use of the different kinds of words has been stressed not through formal explanation but through consistent and repetitive presentation of controlled examples (moving from simple to complex over a prolonged period of therapy).

This therapy approach is based on the assumption that prolonged and controlled stimulation with these patterns (originally on a very simple and a very controlled basis) and the insistence on the patient's own trial and error attempts to use these same patterns in the therapy lessons will eventually result in their carry-over into informal language situations. Thus the aphasic individual will have the grasp of a number of complete patterns of expression (though perhaps limited) upon which he can rely and into which he can fit his desired verbal communications.

Preparation of Materials for Therapy

I. Content of Materials

A. Stories

The stories should be written by the therapist, mimeographed, given to the patients, and/or written on the blackboard.

1. Interest Level

The stories should contain subject matter geared as nearly as possible to the interests of the group.

2. Vocabulary Level

The stories should be constructed using vocabulary geared as nearly as possible to the comprehension level of the group. The level of the vocabulary can be increased gradually as the program progresses. The vocabulary should be practical to the patient in his immediate environment.

3. Markers of Word Functions

The stories should be constructed illustrating (1) the features of form, (2) accompanying function words, and (3) patterning in a sentence of the different word classes as outlined by Fries.⁵ Emphasis should be placed on one class at a time.

B. Exercises and Questions

The exercises and questions should be prepared by the therapist, mimeographed, and given to the patients, and/or written on the blackboard. They should be designed to increase and check comprehension of the reading materials in one or all of the three areas presented below.

1. Total Comprehension of the Reading Material
2. Understanding New Vocabulary Words
3. Understanding of the Functional Uses of Words

The stress will be placed on understanding of the markers of word functions described above.

II. Structure of Materials

A. Structure of the Stories

1. Vocabulary

The words to be stressed for broadening vocabulary and increasing comprehension of written material should be systematically selected and presented.

a. Word Functions

Particular language problems of the aphasic lie in the use of correct verb tenses, correct noun numbers, use of pronouns, connectives and other "linking" words, and in difficulty with sentence order. Since outright explanations of these items are difficult for the aphasic to understand, the teaching materials have been structured to stress one group of words at a time following the form classes and function word groups as outlined by Fries.⁶ The stories have been constructed to present the markers of the form class words (those words which

⁵Charles Fries, *op. cit.*

⁶Charles Fries, *op. cit.*

carry content or meaning) and the patternings of the function word groups (those words which link and help determine precise interpretation of the form class words.)

It is important to note that although words may be classed into these two big groups and their various subgroups, words are not entirely stable and can slip from one class to another. This makes it important to deal with words only as they function within a given sentence. Although no technical explanations of words and their functions will be presented to be learned as such, some discussion of this matter will be undertaken as the lessons demand.

b. Form Classes

The English language employs the use of four form classes: Class 1 (generally nouns and pronouns), Class 2 (generally verbs), Class 3 (generally adjectives) and Class 4 (generally adverbs). Each class has a general meaning: Class 1 (naming), Class 2 (action), Classes 3 and 4 (quality). When used in sentences a number of identifying markers clearly indicate that words are members of particular classes. Fries⁷ defines three such ways in which words may be marked: (1) by something in the word itself (features of form such as suffixes and prefixes), (2) by function words that accompany it, and (3) by the position and pattern in a sentence.

Some of the markers of the form classes are very rigid while others are more flexible. At the beginning of therapy the therapist, by preparing materials which adhere closely to the more rigid markers of form class, can help the patient begin to grasp the function of each of these kinds of words in a sentence pattern.

c. Function Word Groups

Function word groups differ from form classes in several ways: (1) each contains few words whereas each form class contains thousands, (2) they are not

⁷Charles Fries, *op. cit.*

marked by features of form, (3) they serve only to expand the basic patterns, and (4) some function word groups pattern consistently with certain form classes.

The functional word groups can be taught as they pattern with words of the form classes to help the patient begin to grasp the function of each of these kinds of words in sentence patterns. Since space does not permit a complete discussion of all word groups the reader is referred to Roberts⁸ and Fries.

2. Sentence Structure

In composing sentences for the stories careful attention should be given to the use of one or more of the identifying markers of the form classes each time such words are used. Words from the functional words groups may be used in their appropriate patterns with words from the form classes.

By adhering closely to the identifying markers previously discussed the therapist can prepare materials which give consistent stimulation with the functional patterns of the different kinds of words. Rather than being given rules for structure the patient is given continuous stimulation with the complete patterns of structure. For example, the functions of nouns (Class 1), verbs (Class 2), adjectives (Class 3), and adverbs (Class 4) can be taught by illustrations of their use in sentences rather than by memorization of rules for their use. It is felt that this stimulation together with some knowledge of the identifying markers will give the patient a practical foundation for the understanding and use of basic English language structure.

Stories should be constructed using the seven basic sentence patterns.⁹ These patterns can be expanded into longer constructions by the use of modifying groups but the same basic patterns remain. Other more complex sentence structures can be omitted initially.

⁸Paul Roberts, *Patterns of English*, Harcourt, Brace and Co., New York, 1956.

⁹Paul Roberts, *op. cit.*, p. 298.

3. Paragraph Structure

Length of the paragraph can be four or five sentences. The number of paragraphs can be increased from one to four or more paragraphs as the program progresses.

B. Structure of the Exercises and Questions

The exercises and questions should be designed to increase and check comprehension of the reading materials. They should be geared to one or all of three areas: (1) total comprehension of the material, (2) understanding of vocabulary words, and (3) understanding of the functional uses of words.

The exercises and questions should be structured following the same plan outlined for construction of the reading materials. These materials should use the same identifying markers and patterns used in the stories.

When the materials require the patient to supply a word, as many identifying markers as possible should be used to confine the choice of an answer to one specific type of word. Specific markers of the form classes may be used to this end with the function words used as they pattern with them. In this way the question materials not only check and help to increase comprehension but can facilitate the learning of word functions.

Presentation of Therapy Materials

I. Stories

The printed stories prepared as outlined in the previous section are given to each patient. The patients read the material silently.

Example:

SPRING

April is here. Spring is in the air. Spring is a beautiful season of the year. We see many signs of spring.

Warm weather is a sign of spring. The sunshine is bright. The sky is blue. The air is warm.

Many sports are a sign of spring. Baseball is one spring sport. Spring is the best season for baseball. We can sit in the warm sunshine and watch the baseball games.

II. Exercises and Questions¹⁰

A. Purpose

Various kinds of exercises and questions designed to increase and check comprehension are given to the patients. The exercises may be given orally, on printed sheets, or written on the blackboard. The exercises have been geared to one or all of three areas: (1) total comprehension of the material, (2) understanding of vocabulary words, and (3) understanding of the functional uses of words.

B. Presentation

The patients may write the answers or give them orally. They are sometimes permitted to use the story sheet for reference in answering the questions and are sometimes not permitted to do so. Examples of eighteen different kinds of exercises will be discussed.

1. Completion exercises (with blanks to be filled in with one word answers)

a. Stress on comprehension of the reading material

Examples:

- (1) The _____ is blue. (sky)
- (2) Many sports are a _____ of spring. (sign)
(Note: determiners *a* and *the* preceding the blank area signal that a Class 1 word is needed)
- (3) We can _____ in the warm sunshine. (sit)
- (4) We will _____ to the mountains. (drive)
(Note: auxiliaries *can* and *will* preceding the blank area signal that a Class 2 word is needed)

b. Stress on understanding new vocabulary words

Examples:

- (1) The _____ in Brazil is hot. (climate)
- (2) The _____ is rich and red. (soil)
(Note: determiners *a* and *the* preceding the blank signal that a Class 1 word is needed)
- (3) Coffee is _____ in Brazil. (grown)
- (4) Tall trees are _____ for shade. (planted)
(Note: auxiliaries *is* and *are* preceding the blank signal that a Class 2 word is needed)
- (5) Brazil is famous for the _____ coffee. (finest)

¹⁰Some exercises and questions given as examples refer to the sample story, *Spring*; others are drawn from other stories presented during the course of experimentation with this method of therapy.

- (6) Brazil is a very _____ country. (beautiful)
(Note: the determiner preceding the blank and the Class 1 word following it signal that a Class 3 word is needed; the *-est* form of a word and the use of the intensifier *very* are additional signals that a Class 3 word is needed)
- (7) Coffee trees grow _____-ly in good soil. (rapidly)
- (8) He walked down the road very _____-ly. (slowly)
(Note: the use of the intensifier *very* and the *-ly* word form signal that a Class 4 word is used)

- c. Stress on understanding of the functional uses of words
(Note: the functional word groups of determiners, auxiliaries, and intensifiers are taught along with the form classes with which they pattern as discussed above)

2. Questions using question words (to be filled in primarily with one or two word answers)

- a. Stress on comprehension of the reading material

Examples:

- (1) How much did the bridge cost? (ten million dollars)
(2) What color are the leaves on coffee trees? (dark green)

- b. Stress on understanding new vocabulary words (with the words stressed appearing in either the question or the answer)

Examples:

- (1) What *season* is now beginning? (spring)
(2) What *state* is Flint in? (Michigan)

- c. Stress on understanding of the functional uses of words

Examples:

- (1) *Where* was the contest held? (in Ann Arbor)
(Note: the question word *where* implies an answer of place)
(2) *When* did the game take place? (on Friday)
(Note: the question word *when* implies an answer of time)

- (3) *Why* does coffee grow best in Brazil? (good climate and good soil)

(Note: the question word *why* implies an answer of reason or explanation)

3. Matching questions

- a. Stress on comprehension of the material

Examples:

- (1) Who brought the pie? (1) Mrs. Jones
(2) Who brought the cake? (2) Mrs. Smith

- b. Stress on understanding new vocabulary words

Examples:

- (1) What is the *length* of the field? (1) 10 feet
(2) What is the *height* of the tower? (2) 90 feet

- c. Stress on understanding of the functional uses of words

(Note: the same emphasis can be placed on the implications of each question word as already discussed)

4. Short-answer questions

- a. Stress on comprehension of the material, understanding new vocabulary words, and understanding of the functional uses of words

Examples:

- (1) What four states are famous for special foods?
(Florida, Idaho, Maine, California)
(2) What are the months of the coffee harvest?
(March, April, May, June, July, and August)

5. Discussion or explanation exercises

- a. Stress on high level comprehension of the material, understanding of the functional uses of words

Examples:

- (1) Tell three things about the new 1959 cars.
(They will be longer, wider, and shorter.)
(2) Give two reasons for having our picnic early.
(More people will be able to come and it will be before the rainy season.)

6. Questions to classify or categorize materials

- a. Stress on comprehension of the material, high level understanding of new vocabulary words, and understanding of the functional uses of words

Examples:

- (1) Which cars are made by each of the following companies: General Motors, Ford, and Chrysler?
(lists to be made of those discussed in the story)
- (2) What *states* and *towns* were discussed in the story? (lists to be made of those discussed in the story)

7. Multiple choice completion questions (correct answer is only word of its class given as a choice)

- a. Stress on understanding of the functional uses of words

Examples:

- (1) The _____ is planned for Monday.
(1) slowly (2) picnic (3) invited
- (2) Mrs. Brown is baking a _____.
(1) cake (2) beautiful (3) ran
(Note: Determiners *a* and *the* preceding the blank signal that a Class 1 word is needed.)
- (3) Many guests have been _____.
(1) invited (2) cake (3) rainy
- (4) The picnic may be _____ if it rains.
(1) postponed (2) red (3) salad
(Note: auxiliaries *have been* and *may be* preceding the blank signal that a Class 2 word is needed.)

8. Multiple choice completion questions (all choices are words of the same class)

- a. Stress on comprehension of the material

Examples:

- (1) Mrs. Smith is fixing the _____.
(1) salad (2) hot dogs (3) hamburgers
- (2) The _____ is planned for Monday.
(1) party (2) picnic (3) dance

9. Multiple-choice substitution questions (a synonym is to be substituted for the vocabulary word with all choices in the same word class.)

a. Stress on understanding new vocabulary words

Examples:

- (1) The driver suddenly *realized* the danger.
(1) became aware of (3) increased
(2) became alarmed at (4) forgot
(2) A strange story was *related* by the boy.
(1) admitted (3) doubted
(2) remembered (4) told

10. Multiple-choice substitution questions (a vocabulary word is to be substituted for the synonym with all choices in the same word class.)

a. Stress on understanding new vocabulary words

Examples:

- (1) The fliers were told to go to the *height* of 30,000 feet.
(1) altitude (3) length
(2) size (4) breadth
(2) The cold weather made the *trip* impossible.
(1) scenery (3) journey
(2) story (4) country

11. Completion matching questions (correct word to be matched to correct sentence and the blank filled in)

a. Stress on comprehension of the material

Examples:

dark green
cherries
two
one-half inch
small

- (1) Coffee berries are _____ long.
(2) The leaves on coffee trees are _____ in color.
(3) The coffee berries look like red _____.
(4) _____ coffee beans are inside each berry.
(5) Many _____ have flowers blooming.

(Note: various identifying markers preceding the

blanks indicate the class of the word to be supplied.)

b. Stress on understanding functional use of words

Examples:

to
from
in
with

- (1) Mr. Jones came Detroit to Ann Arbor.
- (2) The chalk is the box.
- (3) I went to the show Jim.
- (4) I will go Detroit next weekend.

12. Substitution matching questions (a vocabulary word is to be substituted for the synonym used in the sentence.)

a. Stress on understanding new vocabulary words

Examples:

enjoy
beginning
building
season

- (1) This is the *time* of year for baseball.
- (2) Many people *like* the ball games.
- (3) Birds are *making* nests.
- (4) Leaves are *starting* to come out.

(Note: various identifying markers preceding the underlined words indicate the class of the word to be supplied.)

13. Substitution matching questions (a synonym is to be substituted for the vocabulary word used in the sentence.)

a. Stress on understanding new vocabulary words

Examples:

makes
well-liked
got
well-known

- (1) General Motors *manufactures* cars.
- (2) Bing Crosby is a *famous* man.

(3) Baseball is a *popular* sport.

(4) Many people *received* cuts and bruises.

14. Extracting the main idea of each paragraph of a story

- a. Stress on comprehension of the material

Example:

(The patient is asked to write or tell the main idea.)

15. Composing titles for stories

- a. Stress on comprehension of the material

Example:

(The patient is asked to write or tell a good title for the story.)

16. Choosing a title for a story

- a. Stress on comprehension of the material

Example:

(The patient is asked to choose the best title for the story from a choice of several possible titles.)

17. Composing a summary of the story

- a. Stress on comprehension of the material

Example:

(The patient is asked to write or tell a summary of the important points of a story.)

18. Composing sentences using new vocabulary words

- a. Stress on understanding new vocabulary words

Example:

(The patient is given a word and asked to write or tell a sentence using the word. If the sentences are given orally, they are written on the blackboard by the therapist and the structure is discussed by the group.)

It has been the purpose of this paper to present suggestions for therapy for use in the language rehabilitation of aphasics. The primary emphasis has been on the area of reading. The approach presented here differs from other therapy methods in that certain principles from the field of structural linguistics

have been adapted and employed in its formulation. The materials and techniques described here have been used experimentally with reading groups of high level aphasics with reasonable success.¹¹ It is hoped that further application of this approach to therapy will be made in order to evaluate more fully its strengths and weaknesses.

¹¹The Dysphasia Division of the University of Michigan Speech Clinic has used a similar method of therapy stressing use of words in complete sentences successfully for a number of years.

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THE PROBLEM OF THE ADVANCED STUDENT IN AMERICAN ENGLISH

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The increasing flow of foreign students to American colleges and universities since 1945 has caused concern among host institutions about the language competence of those for whom English is a second language. The foreign applicant is usually informed in his pre-admission correspondence that he must assume responsibility for the achievement of linguistic proficiency in English, but the level of this proficiency is seldom adequately defined. For one thing, language testing programs abroad are often handled unevenly, so that reliance in their results must necessarily be qualified. Examinations may be assessed by linguistically unsophisticated personnel to whom distinctions between ability to make small talk and to pursue academic work in an English-speaking environment are nothing if not theoretical. Not infrequently, the student's confidence in his skill in English is buttressed by miscellaneous certificates and diplomas testifying to his alleged mastery of the language.

Diagnostic examinations administered by host institutions to foreign students during their matriculation usually reveal most language deficiencies, but even the most rigorous language tests presently available do not measure the reading and writing problems which are pre-professional or professional student is likely to encounter in his work. Nor are they designed to do this. It is not unusual therefore for a student to be admitted to an academic program and experience difficulties in, let us say, the writing of his seminar report or master's thesis, often with the result that non-credit courses in thesis writing offered in some institutions for advanced degree candidates and staff are almost fully populated by foreign students. Complaints too can occasionally be heard about the foreign student's unintelligible presentation of a term report.

The fact of the matter is that little work is offered in most English language programs to meet the needs of advanced students. Many programs operate on the assumption that when the basic language work has been completed, obligations toward the

foreign student have been fulfilled. This is particularly true when the language program is thought to fulfil a remedial function and put in the same category with sub-collegiate courses in composition or reading with all the stigmas of the term *remedial* attached to it. Beyond the basic or intensive work; students are left to their own devices. Yet it is precisely at this juncture that they require assistance, for their academic achievement is evaluated in substantially the same manner as that of American students. Hence, one may ask what constitutes language mastery for a college student for whom English is a second language. Does "knowing" a language imply readiness on the student's part to pursue academic work in that language, provided he is otherwise qualified?

Before proceeding to a discussion of this problem, we may remind ourselves that despite the fact that languages have been subjected to rigorous scientific analysis in recent years and that a significant literature has been available to language teachers, misconceptions about language learning and teaching still prevail. One of these is the belief that language proficiency means ability to read a language. Attainment of a reading knowledge is of course a legitimate aim of language learning,¹ provided one remembers that the grammar-translation method does not develop competence in speaking a language.

Another misconception is that knowledge about a language is the same as knowledge of that language, and that a great deal of theory and the memorization of rules is central to language learning. This concept persists throughout the world, particularly where native informants are lacking and where teachers are poorly trained. Indeed, much of the dissatisfaction with English language training in the Philippines, Japan, and a number of Latin American countries stems from the inadequate supply of English-speaking teachers and non-linguistically oriented texts.

Knowing a language does not necessarily mean ability to read it or to formulate theoretical statements about its behavior, though there is no reason why students should not be guided toward significant generalizations about language behavior through appropriate exercise material. A person has learned a language when, as Fries says, he can handle its sound system and structural devices automatically within a small lexical range.² A person knows a language when he can converse with natives, when he

¹See Albert H. Marckwardt, "Motives for the Study of Modern Languages," *Language Learning*, I, 1, 3-11.

²Charles C. Fries, *Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language* (Ann Arbor, 1945), p. 3.

can order food in a restaurant, purchase a railroad ticket, understand and give directions. Conceivably he can employ simple structural patterns in his writing and listen with comprehension to informal speech. Such a person may be said to know language on what might be called an *operational level*.

An operational proficiency, however adequate for everyday affairs, is insufficient for pursuing academic work. For this purpose, a student must be able to use language at a more abstract level. He must have a reading comprehension to complete long and often complex assignments without linguistic handicaps. He must understand oral materials presented at a normal pace by lecturers and discussants. He must be able to handle language with the depth demanded by his subject, whether it be a theme in freshman English or an investigative paper for a graduate seminar. Anyone who cannot fulfill these requirements may be said to have a language problem.

Each student, therefore, prior to his assignment to academic courses should have the opportunity to demonstrate to competent university officials that he has attained a language facility comparable to that of his American counterpart. On the basis of results obtained from rigorous diagnostic tests designed to measure his aural-oral comprehension and his reading and writing skill in English, appropriate recommendations should be made regarding (1) the range of the student's academic program, (2) his enrollment in an appropriate language course if the institution offers one, or (3) referral to an intensive language course such as offered by the English Language Institute of the University of Michigan. Minimum requirements for admission to academic courses should be an operational command of the language. A student with an operational knowledge of English, however, should have his academic program reduced proportionately in order to absolve his language requirements at the earliest possible time.

A language course for those with an operational proficiency in English should be designed primarily to enable the student to make a successful transition from an automatic but rigid control of a small number of patterns with a limited vocabulary to a flexible use of these patterns within a larger lexical range, in spoken and written discourse. The program outlined below is designed to achieve this aim.

Oral training at an advanced level should concentrate on the development of materials allowing students to produce extended stretches of dialogue and exposition. Selections from contemporary American plays (*Death of a Salesman*, *Our Town*) and

printed speeches (*Congressional Record*, *Vital Speeches*) are suitable for this purpose. The student, moreover, should have frequent opportunities to listen to and test his comprehension of taped materials, such as news broadcasts and lectures delivered by different professors. Needless to say, individual problems in pronunciation should continue to receive attention, and drills be prepared on the basis of contrastive analysis of the native and the target language.

Reading instruction should have a three-fold purpose: (1) the development of skills, (2) introduction of the student to the resources of an American collegiate dictionary and the facilities of a university library, and (3) the development of comprehension through materials approximating the level of difficulty in the student's course work. Training in reading skills involves the recognition of devices used to secure unity and coherence in discourse, such as sequence signals and transitions,³ recognition of the organizational clues of a book, such as chapter and topic headings, summaries, as well as preface, table of contents, and index.

Instruction in the uses of an American collegiate dictionary and the resources of a university library, though apparently extraneous to language learning, is nonetheless essential, since most foreign countries do not give much attention to this subject. A survey of language and other problems of foreign students revealed the need for this type of instruction, especially of such matters as the classification of books, their arrangement in a library, and check-out procedures.⁴ The concept of an American library as an open house rather than a zealously guarded depository is new to many students, particularly to those from developing areas where adequate library facilities are lacking.

A brief survey of library resources would include the card catalog (its intricate arrangement of entries and listings of phrases and compound words; see, see also cards), kardex files, reference aids (such as Winchell, *Guide to Reference Books*, or Barton, *Reference Books*), indexes to periodicals, newspapers, and books (such as the *International Index*, *New York Times Index*, or *Essay and General Literature Index*), government publications, biographical dictionaries, and encyclopedic works. It should also provide materials on research techniques and con-

³See Charles C. Fries, *The Structure of English* (New York, 1952), pp. 240-255.

⁴See William Schwab, "Language and Related Problems of Foreign Students," *AAC Bulletin*, XLII (May, 1956), 310-315.

ventions, such as paraphrasing, quoting, and proper documentation.

Since a competently edited dictionary is an indispensable tool for anyone whose work involves the use of language, foreign students, who have been accustomed mostly to bilingual dictionaries, should become thoroughly familiar with the resources of one of the standard American collegiate dictionaries: the *Merriam-Webster New Collegiate*, *Webster's New World*, or the *American College Dictionary*. They need to understand such variable features as arrangements of entries (older or current senses first), compounds, and idiomatic phrases; alternate spellings and pronunciations; usage labels and abbreviations; and symbols for the pronunciation of unfamiliar lexical items. They should know, moreover, that dictionaries do not define so much as indicate directions or areas of meaning which are fully understood only in context (*The new model introduced RADICAL changes; the new legislature introduced RADICAL changes*). And they should learn that dictionaries record usage, not prescribe it.

Since most foreign students spend a year or more in the United States, it is only reasonable that they should have some understanding of American society. Reading materials therefore should be selected not only for their value as comprehension exercises, but also for their merits as contextual orientation to American institutions. Selections should introduce the student to basic concepts of American political, economic, and cultural life.⁵ Nor should so-called "controversial" topics such as the agonizing attempts to solve the race problem be avoided.

Work in composition should equip the student to produce discourse which employs acceptable standards of spelling and punctuation and which is reasonably free from structural and stylistic errors due to language differences. Some of the most common structural errors found in advanced classes of foreign students from mixed language backgrounds include lack of concord (**one example show this very well*), incorrect use of tense forms, especially omission of *-ed*, the use of *to* after function words like *must*, *will*, *can*, the incorrect use of determiners like *a*, *an*, *the*, with nouns (**our town is very lovely place*), lack of parallel construction (*How the university is administered, the system of organizing its curriculum . . .*), and incorrect use of word order (**very good is here the graduate school*). Pattern practice can eliminate these types of errors which are inevitably due to word-for-word translation from the native language.

⁵A useful introductory brochure is the September 1958 issue of the IIE *News Bulletin*, "Aspects of America."

Stylistic weaknesses tend to be excessive formality and wordiness. These can sometimes be attributed to misconceptions about the characteristics of modern American expository prose. Students may have read only older English masterpieces and attempted to emulate styles of writing long since out of date. Often they simply transpose characteristic patterns of their own language into English.

Besides structural and stylistic faults, errors in diction and idiom occur most frequently. Standard conventions of punctuation violated most often are overuse of the comma, confusion in the use of italics and quotation marks, and the colon and semicolon. Misspellings are often due to the student's inability to make phonemic distinctions (*live* for *leave*; *depend* for *defend*), or lack of knowledge that most English phonemes are represented by more than one grapheme (**farmacy*, **calledge*, **ambicious*).

Two points must be made about the operation of a language program at an advanced level. First of all, students admitted to such a program should begin their first term on campus. Correct language habits must be established initially; otherwise wrong habits have to be unlearned. Secondly, a university committed to such a program should adhere to an institution-wide policy regarding students with language deficiencies. Often a student himself may feel that his language ability is such that he requires no assistance, or because of the pressure of time, reacts unfavorably to enrollment in a language course. Unfavorable experiences of students have shown that one of the costliest ways of learning a language is as a by-product of professional or pre-professional course work. Both student and instructor become distressed if language deficiencies are not remedied in language classes. Even those students who believe that they only require a reading and writing knowledge in a foreign language (as an occasional student in mathematics or engineering) find it useful to establish a linguistically sound basis for these skills: oral competence in the language.

Since a foreign student's stay in the United States entails much expense and effort, it is important that whatever language deficiency he may possess be corrected as soon as possible, so he can pursue his studies fruitfully, as well as understand and enjoy the temper and the nuances of American cultural and social life. That is why a rigorously planned and executed program for those with an "operational" command of English can do much to insure a student's academic success and productivity in an American university, and, one may hope, a favorable assessment of his experiences in this country.

A TEN DAY PROGRAM OF PREPARATION FOR LANGUAGE LEARNING

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This paper describes a program in which modern techniques in teaching and learning a foreign language are used, not for the acquisition of a specific language, but for the experience of language learning as such. About 40 percent of the students in the first year course at the University of Oklahoma's Summer Institute of Linguistics spend the final ten days of their summer's work in this language learning program, designed to prepare them to learn any language.¹ Some of them will later take formal language courses; others will have to learn a language for which no courses are available. The program attempts to prepare the student for learning in either way.

Since a language is a set of habits,² learning a new language is the development of a new set of habits, accomplished by much repetition of the patterns of the new language.³ Most of the

¹This is parallel, as I understand it, to the goal of the Toronto Institute of Linguistics and the Missionary Conference of Meadville, Pa., with the following exceptions: 1) These schools are set up with language learning as their main goal whereas SIL emphasizes language analysis with this short field program tacked on the end. 2) The schools at Toronto and Meadville are aimed more at those who will learn already analyzed languages and go more into techniques whereas the SIL field problem is for those who will meet unanalyzed as well as analyzed languages and thus attempts to develop an approach in a more general way, dealing less specifically with techniques.

²As defined by William G. Moulton in *Study Hints for Language Students* (New York), a pamphlet adapted from an article of the same title which appeared in *The Modern Language Journal* (October, 1952), p. 2.

³See Bloomfield who says, "Physiologically, language is not a unit of function, but consists of a great many activities, whose union into a single far-reaching complex of habits results from repeated stimulations during the individual's early life." Leonard Bloomfield, *Language* (New York, 1933), p. 37; and also later teachers, e.g., Moulton, loc. cit., and Haden: "Much repetition is the only known means of acquiring the

previous orientation of the student, however, is toward thinking and analysis: organizing, interpreting, and analyzing facts.⁴ At SIL, moreover, he has learned *about* language and analysis techniques. Often he is not yet aware that analytical skills do not guarantee ability or efficiency in learning to speak a language. He is not psychologically prepared for the endless drill necessary to develop the new motor responses involved. This program proposes to help the student over the psychological hurdle, to develop a proper attitude towards language learning. It attempts to show him what is involved and to convince him that he can learn a language.

For the program described here the laboratory language used has been Kiowa.⁵ There is one Kiowa speaking informant and one staff supervisor available to each group of five or six students. For ten days, five days each week, the student's sole responsibility is to this program and an occasional outside lecture. He is expected to spend six hours daily in the program, with evening study only if he chooses.

We first outline the program, considering the daily schedule, lesson content, drill sessions, testing, and general progression, in that order. We then consider briefly the reasoning behind the approach followed.

Daily Schedule

Each informant works with two students each hour. In an effort to avoid unequal opportunity, the student changes partner, informant, and hours on successive days. He has two informant-hours per day, and spends four more hours in drill or testing sessions. When not leading drill sessions or testing, the supervisor attends informant-hours and gives help where needed to make the hour profitable. His role is largely to encourage and to give pep talks, either privately or in drill sessions.

mastery of language skills. This is true because so much of what enters into the complex of a language must become habitual and automatic in order to function properly as a means of communication. Foreign language mastery is then principally the result of a process of habituation rather than comprehension of unfamiliar meanings." Ernest F. Haden, *How to Pronounce Spanish* (New York, 1953), p. 5.

⁴Moulton, *loc. cit.*

⁵A similar course in Comanche has also been used for language assimilation for some first year SIL students but is not considered in this description.

The last hour of the day the students often gather for a class, which may include suggestions for improvement in the use of time, discussion of other student problems, discussion of portions of Kiowa structure, instructions for the following day.

The Lessons

Normal everyday conversations and material for expanding them constitute the lessons, as the following outline indicates:

Lesson I: A short conversation between a visitor and a host.

1. Greeting.
2. Response to (1).
3. Short dialogue about the weather.
4. Question asking the name of an object.
5. Response to (4).
6. Request for repetition of (5).
7. Repetition of (5).
8. Mimicry of (7) and question asking whether it was said right.
9. Affirmative response.
10. Leave taking.
11. Response.

Lesson II: A new conversation, largely identical to Lesson I, but with a negative reply and some alternative expressions and responses.

Lesson III: Expansion of Lessons I and II.

1. Weather expressions adequate for immediate circumstances.
2. Substitution frames (taken from Lessons I and II)
 - a) "Where are you going?" with a short series of replies.
 - b) "What is it?"
"What is that?"
"Is it a . . . ?"
"It's a . . ." with a list of objects for substitution or reply, likely to be in the environment.

Lessons IV and V: Conversations of two people meeting on the street.

Lesson VI: Conversation in a store.

Lesson VII: Dining room conversation.

The lessons were elicited for the most part by setting up the context of the situation with the informant and developing what he might say in the situation, not attempting to limit the vocabulary or structure used. For example, in building Lesson I the informant was asked to pretend the investigator had come to visit him. When the visitor arrived at the door, he was asked who would speak first, what he would say, what a reply might be and so on.

Each lesson includes some expressions from previous lessons. Parts of expressions frequently appear in new combinations. The Kiowa appears in a transcription that, while not strictly phonemic, is based on a phonemic analysis. It appears on the page in a column opposite the English gloss (the contextual, not literal, equivalent of the Kiowa) so that the paper may be folded lengthwise to make only the Kiowa or English visible. Brief notes regarding structure are included in appropriate places.

Drill Sessions

Drills help the student to gain sufficient repetitions of the Kiowa forms. Some of the drills follow:

- 1) For intonation and timing: At the start of the program students hum in unison with the taped lesson, or, using some nonsense syllable, mimic the "flow" of the language.
- 2) For pronunciation: a) Students mimic pronunciation drills, containing most of the Kiowa phonemes, which progress from short to long utterances; these drills are patterned after Haden's Spanish pronunciation drills.⁶
b) Students, in unison, mimic the taped lessons.
- 3) For rapid response: a) The instructor (or a student) fires out expressions to which students, in turn, give proper responses.
b) Various substitution frame drills are used, always including a linguistic situation and its response.
- 4) For comprehension: A taped story, or conversation between two informants is played; the subject matter correlates with the lessons but the material is not otherwise

⁶Haden, *op. cit.*

limited to that familiar to the students. The student writes a summary of all he can understand.

Testing

A relatively informal evaluation of the student's progress is carried out in two general ways. One is a mimicry test. On the second day students go singly during drill sessions to a room where two tape recorders are set up. One machine plays several expressions from Lesson I which the student mimics; the other records these expressions and the student's mimicry of them. The latter is then played back for the student to compare his pronunciation with that of the informant. A similar test, with longer utterances (some of them not from lessons), is given about the fourth or fifth day.

The other method is a student-instructor conversation. On the third day the instructor takes the initiative in a short conversation with each student; near the end of the program the student is asked to lead a similar conversation while the instructor adds a few unfamiliar expressions which the student should understand from the context.

Unrehearsed skits in Kiowa comprise the final evaluation. The students are divided into groups. One group presents a skit, such as a trip to the store, meeting on the street, or the like; the others demonstrate their comprehension of the conversation by writing summaries of it.

Progression

The day before work with the informants begins an opening lecture informs the students of what they are expected to do and attempts to engender enthusiasm. It includes material on the nature of language, the necessity of drill and practice in learning a language, and the importance of attitude and approach.

Although all areas of language learning must be worked with at once, emphasis for the first day or so is on the sounds.⁷ The student is expected to spend his first informant hours merely mimicking the informant's pronunciation of the expressions in the lesson. Difficult sounds and sound sequences are drilled as the need becomes apparent.

⁷Hodge says, "... the nearer you get to pronouncing the precise sounds, the easier it will be for your ear to catch the sound as spoken by the native, and you will pick up new words and phrases and make progress in learning the language." Carleton Hodge, *Spoken Serbo-Croatian* (New York, 1945), p. v.

After he has gone through the lesson several times, the student acts out the lesson with his partner, the informant saying the expressions after the student to correct him. The emphasis shifts to memorizing the lesson, until the response to each expression is automatic. After the first few days emphasis is on control of the material in *any* of the lesson contexts with a more systematic attempt to control structural features. The student spends some informant hours just chatting in Kiowa with his informant.

Beginning the fifth day, students are asked to use only Kiowa with their informants.

The program described above rests on the assumption that the best preparation for language learning lies in the development of a proper attitude toward it. We suggest that if a student becomes aware of what he faces—frustrations and feelings of instability accompanying the reorientation of lifelong habits, the endless drill and practice involved in developing new habits (actually he must adopt a part of another culture⁸)—and if he becomes convinced that he can overcome the difficulties involved, he will approach a new language with confidence and throw himself into the task of developing the new habits. The details of method, though important and a help in producing a good attitude, are considered secondary.

We assume that ten days of actually learning a language, albeit a very limited amount, goes further in developing such an attitude than a comparable period of lectures and reading about approaches to language learning.⁹ Learning to converse in Kiowa the student becomes acutely aware of what is involved in language learning. Successful in Kiowa he gains confidence that he can learn another language. We do not propose to teach him Kiowa, but, using Kiowa, to teach him to approach any language. In this way our program contrasts with one for teaching a specific language like Spanish.

How can we convince the student that he is successful in Kiowa? He can't learn enough in ten days to follow the stream

⁸Joseph Grimes of the Summer Institute of Linguistics in an unpublished paper, "Learning an Unwritten Language," states, "Since language is a part of any group's cultural background, and especially since interaction between two groups requires communication, learning the language of another group may be regarded as part of the total process of becoming culturally like the other group." p. 1.

⁹Such as Nida, *Learning a Foreign Language* (New York, 1949), Edwin T. Cornelius Jr., *How to Learn a Foreign Language* (New York, 1955), and others.

of speech, nor say all he wants or needs to in any conversation. If he can, however, get to the place that he can somehow handle entire situations in Kiowa without recourse to English, and if he can expand this indefinitely, he *may* consider himself to be successful.

The program is set up to that end; consequently, our chief criterion in choosing material is its contribution toward enabling the student to handle a given contextual situation.

This is the reason for the use of short but complete conversations. Usable in a natural way from the beginning, such a conversation provides a starting point from which to learn vocabulary and structure, each meaningless without the other. Vocabulary lists, or paradigms, or even frame drills are of little use if not learned in a context usable in the linguistic situation the student must handle.

The use of entire contextual situations also aids in the association of sounds with meaning, apart from translation; recall of the language forms is in terms of the situations in which they are heard without use of an intermediate language. This discourages the translation of each word and the attendant danger of using the words elsewhere in a context natural for English but not for Kiowa.¹⁰ The student needs to know what to say in a given situation, more than how to say such and such. Meeting words in various expressions provides some feeling for their areas of meaning.

Finally, the learning of a whole situation provides a basis for expansion, both into more situations and also into more systematic study of structure. While not chosen for features of language structure, those structural features illustrated in the conversation being learned are made matters of habit, and these habits can be expanded rapidly later by means of systematic study of and drill in the various areas of structure.¹¹ Thus, the situation learned provides a mold, a feel for the language, into which to fit the rules for expansion rather than learning them in a vacuum.

¹⁰ *e.g.*, in Kiowa "How are you?" is never used in a greeting though students who learn the expression with that translation persist in using it there. Also "thank you" is not a proper response to "come in," or "sit down," though students tend to use it when they learn the word for "thank you" with the literal translation.

¹¹ See Twaddell: "... 'rule' of a language is the analytical statement of one of the habitual aspects of that language. We know that the habit is the reality and the rule is a mere summary of the habit." W. F. Twaddell, "Meanings, Habits, and Rules," *Language Learning*, II, No. 1, p. 7.

THE SEQUENCE OF TENSES WITH "IF"-CLAUSES

Leslie A. Hill

The problem of sequence of tenses in English has intrigued me for many years, because the grammars either gloss over it, or give rules which are obviously inaccurate. In one English course which I have before me, for instance, it is stated: "If the verb in the main clause is in a past tense, the verb in a subordinate clause must also be in a past tense." Two exceptions are given, one relating to permanent truths in Reported Speech, the other to adverb clauses of comparison. Examples of the sequence of tenses in conditional sentences are given.

Twice before, such utterances as "If you wouldn't mind waiting here a moment, I'll tell the manager you've arrived" and "If you'll pardon my saying so, you made a big mistake in taking this house" prompted me to begin an investigation into the sequence of tenses in the pattern *If* + Subject of the "if"-clause + Verb (+ Extensions, if any) + Subject of main clause + Verb (+ Extensions, if any) (e.g. "If I see him, I'll tell you"). However, each time the results were so alarming that I stopped my research.

Recently, however, I took them up again systematically. I took 18 English tenses and tried which would go with which if I put one of them in the "if"-clause and another in the main clause. I discovered that every combination was possible, i.e. that I was able to produce 324 (18 x 18) combinations. I give these below. A number of these combinations are, of course, rare because the situations which would require them are rare; but I believe that every one of them would be passed as normal by the average linguistically unsophisticated native speaker of Standard English if he were to hear it in a suitable, natural context without having his attention specially drawn to it.

The fact that these combinations exist does not, of course, mean that we have to teach them all to our students: as with other aspects of the English language, we should choose the ones we wish to teach, grade these, decide which of them we are going to teach in which year, and then leave the students to pick the rest up in their reading and listening after we have finished our course with them. The list that follows will enable the teacher to check whether he has left out any combination that he

thinks worth teaching; and it will save him from the indignity of giving his students "rules" and then having them confronting him with examples that contradict them.

I am aware that my combinations illustrate different meanings of "if", but I do not think that teachers will find it easy to put these differences into words.

The tenses I have used are numbered as follows:

| | |
|------------------------------|---------------------|
| go/goes | I or 1 ¹ |
| am/are/is going | II or 2 |
| am/are/is going to go | III or 3 |
| will/shall go | IV or 4 |
| will/shall be going | V or 5 |
| would/should go | VI or 6 |
| would/should be going | VII or 7 |
| went | VIII or 8 |
| was/were going | IX or 9 |
| have/has gone | X or 10 |
| have/has been going | XI or 11 |
| had gone | XII or 12 |
| had been going | XIII or 13 |
| will/shall have gone | XIV or 14 |
| would/should have gone | XV or 15 |
| will/shall have been going | XVI or 16 |
| would/should have been going | XVII or 17 |
| used to go | XVIII or 18 |

Here are the combinations:

| | |
|------|--|
| I/1 | If you go, I go too. |
| I/2 | If you go, he's going too. |
| I/3 | If you go, I'm going to go too. |
| I/4 | If he goes, I'll go too. |
| I/5 | If you go, he'll be going soon after. |
| I/6 | If he goes, I'd like to go too. |
| I/7 | If the plane leaves at 7, I'd be making a fool of myself (if I were to get to the airport at 5). |
| I/8 | If he really has a gold watch, he probably stole it. |
| I/9 | All right, if you say so, I was making a mistake. |
| I/10 | If he's not here, he's gone to the market. |
| I/11 | If he really comes here once a week, he's been telling us lies. |
| I/12 | If it's seven now, I'd finished my work by five. |
| I/13 | If it's seven now, I'd been working for three hours when John arrived. |
| I/14 | If it's really Monday today, I'll have been here a week tomorrow. |
| I/15 | If I go, I'd have liked him to have gone first. |
| I/16 | If it's the twentieth today, I'll have been working here exactly three months tomorrow. |
| I/17 | If he becomes an earl, I'd have been making a big fool of myself (if I'd refused to marry him). |
| I/18 | If he's the man I mean, he used to swim a lot when he was younger. |

- II/1 If he's going to the market, I want him to buy me some fruit.
 II/2 If you're going, I'm going too.
 II/3 If you're going, I'm going to go too.
 II/4 If you're staying, I shall try to stay too.
 II/5 If he's staying with a family, he'll soon be speaking good English.
 II/6 If he's staying, I'd like to stay too.
 II/7 If he's taking part in the race, I'd be making a fool of myself (if I entered).
 II/8 If he's really eating a fish, he probably bought it in the market: I don't believe he caught it himself.
 II/9 If he's being a fool now, you were being a bigger one a moment ago.
 II/10 If she's washing up the dishes, they've obviously finished breakfast.
 II/11 If he's making a fool of himself now, you've been making a fool of yourself for years.
 II/12 If I'm not making a mistake, I'd finished my work by five.
 II/13 If I'm not making a mistake, I'd been working for two hours when you arrived.
 II/14 If you're only just starting now, you won't have finished by six.
 II/15 If you are feeling cold *now*, you would have been unable to stand the cold a month ago.
 II/16 If you are thinking of stopping at six, we'll have been working for three hours then.
 II/17 If you're feeling cold *now*, you would have been feeling really terrible (if you'd been here a month ago during our cold spell).
 II/18 If he's being silly now, he used to be quite mad a year ago.
- III/1 If you're really going to go, I hope it'll be soon.
 III/2 If you're really going to go, we're hoping it won't be for long.
 III/3 If it's going to rain, it's going to rain, and there's nothing we can do about it.
 III/4 If *you're* going to go, you'll no doubt make the arrangements yourself.
 III/5 If *you're* going to go, you'll no doubt be making the arrangements yourself.
 III/6 If *you're* going to go, you'd no doubt like to take your wife with you.
 III/7 If *you're* going to go, *we* would be making a big mistake (if we were to stay).
 III/8 If you *are* in fact going to go, John was right after all.
 III/9 If Anne *is* in fact going to go, John was telling the truth after all.
 III/10 If Anne *is* in fact going to go, Mary has made a mistake.
 III/11 If Anne *is* in fact going to go, John has been telling truth.
 III/12 If you *are* in fact going to leave, I *had* hoped you would at least have warned me.
 III/13 If you *are* in fact going to leave, I *had* been hoping you would at least have warned me.

- III/14 If you *are* in fact going to leave at eight, Jane will have left by the time you get there.
- III/15 If she *is* in fact going to leave tomorrow, she will no doubt have been packing today.
- III/16 If you *are* in fact going to leave tomorrow, it would have been better (if you had warned us).
- III/17 If you *are* in fact going to leave tomorrow, you would have been showing more common-sense (if you'd warned us).
- III/18 If you *are* in fact going to leave early, it *used* to be the custom to let someone know first.
- IV/1 If you'll pardon me, it *doesn't* rain here every day.
- IV/2 If you'll pardon my saying so, it *is* raining.
- IV/3 If you will allow me, I'm going to stay here.
- IV/4 If you'll wait a minute, I'll tell the manager you're here.
- IV/5 If you'll pardon me, the party *will* be taking place this evening.
- IV/6 If you'll permit me, I'd like the afternoon off today.
- IV/7 If you'll pardon my saying so, you'd be taking a great risk (if you did that).
- IV/8 If you'll pardon me, I *was* here yesterday!
- IV/9 If you'll allow me to say so, you were trying to do something impossible.
- IV/10 If you'll pardon me, you've left something out.
- IV/11 If you'll pardon me, I've been waiting here longer than *you*.
- IV/12 If you'll pardon me, I *had* finished by seven.
- IV/13 If you'll pardon me, I *had* been working for three hours when you arrived.
- IV/14 If you'll pardon my saying so again, I *will* have been here a year next Monday.
- IV/15 If you'll allow me to say so, I'd have liked the concert to have been shorter.
- IV/16 If you'll pardon my disagreeing with you, I *will* have been working here five years next Monday.
- IV/17 If you'll pardon my saying so, I'd have been making a fool of myself (if I'd stayed any longer).
- IV/18 If you'll excuse me, I used to play tennis very well when I was younger.
- V/1 If he will really be endangering our lives by staying here, he leaves at once!
- V/2 If we shall be running a risk by going out, I'm staying at home.
- V/3 If you'll be sleeping when I get home, I'm not going to bother to bring you any ice-cream.
- V/4 If he'll be running a risk by going there, I shall warn him.
- V/5 If he'll be running a risk by staying here until the monsoons, he'll probably soon be leaving us.
- V/6 If he'll be running a risk by staying here, I'd prefer him to go.
- V/7 If *he*'ll be running in the race, I'd be making a fool of myself (if I entered).

- V/8 If he'll be endangering our lives by staying any longer, we were foolish to ask him to do so.
- V/9 If he'll be endangering our lives by staying any longer, we were taking a big risk when we asked him to do so.
- V/10 If he'll be endangering our lives by staying any longer, we've made a big mistake in asking him to do so.
- V/11 If *he* will be endangering our lives by staying any longer, *we* have been endangering his by talking too much.
- V/12 If he *will* be endangering our lives by staying here, he had at least warned us when we took him in.
- V/13 If he *will* be endangering our lives by staying here, hadn't he been risking his life to protect us right up to the time he was wounded?
- V/14 If he will be endangering our lives by staying any longer, we shall not have let his kindness to us go unrewarded.
- V/15 If he will be endangering our lives by staying here, it would have been wiser not to have offered to take him in.
- V/16 If he will be endangering our lives by staying here, we shall merely have been trying to repay his many kindnesses to us.
- V/17 If he will be endangering our lives by staying any longer, we would have been showing more foresight (if we had asked him to leave yesterday).
- V/18 If he *will* be endangering our lives by staying here, *we* used to endanger *his* often enough when we were staying with him.
- VI/1 If it would interest you to know it, the film begins at six.
- VI/2 If it would interest you to know it, it's snowing again.
- VI/3 If you would really *like* to go, I'm not going to stop you.
- VI/4 If you would wait here, I'll go and tell him you want to see him.
- VI/5 If it would interest you to know it, I'll be leaving at ten.
- VI/6 If you should be thinking of buying some cheese, I'd be grateful for some too.
- VI/7 If you should be thinking of buying some cheese, you'd be doing me a great service (if you were to buy me some too).
- VI/8 If it would interest you to know it, I saw him alive yesterday afternoon!
- VI/9 If it would interest you to know it, I was earning my living when you were still in your cradle!
- VI/10 If it would interest you to know it, I've just had an accident with the car.
- VI/11 If it would interest you to know it, he's been telling you a pack of lies.
- VI/12 If it would interest you to know it, I'd finished before you even began.
- VI/13 If it would interest you to know it, I'd already been working for two hours when you arrived.
- VI/14 If it would interest you to know it, I shall have been here ten years next Monday.
- VI/15 If it would interest you to know it, I would have helped you (if you'd asked me).

- VI/16 If it would interest you to know it, I shall have been working here for ten years next Monday.
- VI/17 If it would interest you to know it, I would have been earning £2,000 a year by now if I had stayed with my old employers.
- VI/18 If it would interest you to know it, I used to be a champion swimmer when I was at school.
- VII/1 If you should be thinking of buying some cheese, we have some already.
- VII/2 If you should be thinking of going out, it's raining hard.
- VII/3 If it would be cheating to look, I'm not going to do so.
- VII/4 If it would be cheating to look, I'll keep my eyes shut.
- VII/5 If you should be thinking of giving me a lift, I'll be passing your house at about five.
- VII/6 If you should be thinking of buying some cheese, I'd be grateful for some too.
- VII/7 If you should be thinking of buying some cheese, you'd be doing me a great favour (if you bought *me* some).
- VII/8 If you should be thinking of buying some cheese, I bought some this morning, so we don't need any more.
- VII/9 If you should be thinking of going to the cinema, I was intending to see 'Limelight' tonight.
- VII/10 If you should be thinking of buying some cheese, I've already bought some for ourselves.
- VII/11 If you should be thinking of buying that house, I've been talking to the last tenant about it, and he says it's awful.
- VII/12 If you should be thinking of buying *that* house, I'd already made all the necessary arrangements for buying it myself before you even saw it.
- VII/13 If you should be thinking of challenging my claim to having the longest service, I had already been working here two years when the next man joined.
- VII/14 If you should be trying to find a suitable day for an office holiday, our firm will have been in existence 10 years next Monday, so you might choose that day.
- VII/15 If it would be cheating to look, I would have liked to have been told before the game began instead of now.
- VII/16 If you should be trying to find a suitable day for an office holiday, our firm will have been going 10 years next Monday.
- VII/17 If it would be cheating for me to look now, it would surely also have been cheating for you to look half an hour ago.
- VII/18 If you should be thinking of taking on a gardener, I used to be head gardener to Lord Snooks.
- VIII/1 If he arrived at 9 yesterday and today, he probably arrives at that time every day.
- VIII/2 If he went to bed as late as that, he's probably still sleeping now.
- VIII/3 If he deliberately broke it, I'm going to punish him.
- VIII/4 If he went to bed as late as that, he won't be awake yet.

- VIII/5 If he went to bed as late as that, he probably won't be getting up for breakfast.
- VIII/6 If it rained tomorrow, we would have to stay at home.
- VIII/7 If you came at 1, we would be having our lunch.
- VIII/8 If he said so, he said so, and that's the end of it.
- VIII/9 If he said so, he was telling a lie.
- VIII/10 If she got a doll for her birthday, she hasn't got it any more now.
- VIII/11 If he went to the cinema with another girl yesterday, he's been telling me a pack of lies.
- VIII/12 If he left the office at 4, he had obviously finished all his work by then.
- VIII/13 If he left the office at 4, he had been working 4 hours when he stopped.
- VIII/14 If what he said was true, he will have been working here for 25 years next month.
- VIII/15 If he wasn't such a terrible bore, we'd certainly have visited him more often while he was here.
- VIII/16 If that last church clock was right, we shall have been driving solidly for four hours in a few minutes' time.
- VIII/17 If what he said was right, he would have been earning £2,000 a year by now (if he hadn't left his old firm).
- VIII/18 If the Smith you mean was a famous swimmer in his youth, I certainly used to know him.
- IX/1 If he was leaving for Paris on Monday, he is probably there by now.
- IX/2 If he was staying at that hotel yesterday, he's probably staying there today too.
- IX/3 If he was sleeping instead of working, he's going to get into trouble.
- IX/4 If he was staying at this hotel when you met him, I shall try to find his name in the register.
- IX/5 If he was living here last time you met him, he'll probably be living here next time you meet him too.
- IX/6 If we were living in Bermuda, we'd swim all the year round.
- IX/7 If we were living in Bermuda, we'd be swimming all the year round.
- IX/8 If he was really trying to get the job, he went the wrong way about it.
- IX/9 If you were hoping to win, you were being over-optimistic.
- IX/10 If he was hoping to get here by five, his hopes have been frustrated.
- IX/11 If you were hoping to finish by five, why have you been doing nothing for the past hour?
- IX/12 If you were leaving the office early this afternoon, I had hoped to have tea with you.
- IX/13 If you were leaving the office early this afternoon, I'd been hoping to have tea with you.
- IX/14 If he was telling the truth, he'll have been here for 50 years next Monday.
- IX/15 If we were spending this winter in London, we would have gone to see the Boat Race last Saturday.

- IX/16 If he was telling the truth, he'll have been living here 50 years next Monday.
- IX/17 If he was telling the truth when he said that he was a millionaire, he would surely have been wearing better clothes.
- IX/18 If he was telling the truth, he used to live here when he was a boy.
- X/1 If *Jack* has left, *we* leave too.
- X/2 If it's stopped raining, I'm going out.
- X/3 If he hasn't come yet, he's going to get into trouble.
- X/4 If it's stopped raining, he'll soon be here.
- X/5 If it's stopped raining, I shall be leaving very soon.
- X/6 If it's stopped raining, I'd like to go out.
- X/7 If you've seen the murderer recently, you'd be doing us a great service by informing the police.
- X/8 If he's left, he obviously did so before we arrived.
- X/9 If he's paid the money back, I was misjudging him just now.
- X/10 If the bus has left, it's left, and there's nothing to be done about it.
- X/11 If he's hurt his foot, he's obviously been climbing trees again.
- X/12 If he's found it, I *had* hoped he'd bring it back to me.
- X/13 If he's found it, I *had* been hoping he'd bring it back to me.
- X/14 If I haven't made a mistake, I'll have been here 10 years next Monday.
- X/15 If he's broken any bones, I'd have liked to have been informed earlier.
- X/16 If I haven't made a mistake, I'll have been living here 10 years next Monday.
- X/17 If I haven't made a mistake in my calculations, I'd have been earning £2,000 a year by now (if I'd stayed in my old firm).
- X/18 If I haven't made a mistake in my calculations, my salary 20 years ago used to buy more than my present salary does now.
- XI/1 If it's been raining a lot when we got out, the streets are always very muddy.
- XI/2 If he's been talking his usual nonsense, I'm going.
- XI/3 If he's been telling lies again, he's going to get into trouble.
- XI/4 If he's been breaking things, his mother will punish him.
- XI/5 If it's been raining a lot in the south, the Smiths will presumably be congratulating themselves on not having gone there.
- XI/6 If he's been writing more poems, I'd like to see them.
- XI/7 If he's been stealing flowers, you'd be doing us a great service by telling the police.
- XI/8 If he's been waiting for so long, he obviously arrived much too early.
- XI/9 If he's been living here so long, I was making a mistake just now when I said he was a newcomer.
- XI/10 If he's been living in *this* place, he's undoubtedly discovered what real discomfort means.

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- XI/11 If he's been selling you firewood, he's been stealing it from us.
- XI/12 If he's been making so much money, I had hoped he'd give some to his old mother.
- XI/13 If he's been making so much money, I had been hoping he'd give some to his old mother.
- XI/14 If he hasn't been telling lies, he'll have been here 10 years next Monday.
- XI/15 If he's been misbehaving, I'd have liked to have been informed earlier.
- XI/16 If he hasn't been telling lies, he'll have been living here 10 years next Monday.
- XI/17 If he hasn't been telling us lies, he'd have been earning £2,000 a year by now if he had stayed with his old firm.
- XI/18 If he hasn't been telling lies, he used to live here as a boy.
- XII/1 If he had already gone when you arrived, I don't see how you can have met him.
- XII/2 If he'd already gone when you arrived, I'm leaving this office.
- XII/3 If he had hoped to become manager, he's going to be disappointed when he hears this news.
- XII/4 If he'd already gone when you arrived, we shall dismiss him.
- XII/5 If he'd already gone when you arrived, he'll be getting the sack within the next few days.
- XII/6 If you'd left earlier, you wouldn't be in this jam now.
- XII/7 If we'd left at 7, we'd be having dinner in London now.
- XII/8 If he'd already gone when she arrived, she naturally didn't see him.
- XII/9 If he'd already gone when she arrived, she was making a mistake when she said she'd seen him.
- XII/10 If he'd already gone when you arrived, I haven't been informed of it yet.
- XII/11 If he'd already gone when you arrived, he's been telling me lies again.
- XII/12 If he'd made a mistake, you'd certainly made one too.
- XII/13 If he'd made a mistake, he'd been hoping to conceal the fact.
- XII/14 If he'd hoped to become manager, he won't have achieved his ambition by the time he retires.
- XII/15 If he'd left earlier, he'd have arrived by now.
- XII/16 If he'd already gone when you arrived, he'll have been feeling pretty ashamed of himself during the past few days.
- XII/17 If we'd left earlier, we'd have been having dinner in London by now.
- XII/18 If only we'd known, Mr. Smith used to live here: he could easily have given us some introductions to people.
- XIII/1 If he'd been hoping to become manager, he probably feels pretty disappointed now.
- XIII/2 If he'd been hoping to become manager, he's probably feeling pretty disappointed now.
- XIII/3 If he'd been hoping to become manager, he's going to be pretty disappointed when he hears this news.

- XIII/4 If he'd been hoping to become manager, he'll feel disappointed when he hears this news.
- XIII/5 If he'd been hoping to become manager, he'll be feeling pretty disappointed now.
- XIII/6 If he'd been hoping to become manager, I'd expect him to show some signs of disappointment now.
- XIII/7 If he'd been hoping to become manager, he'd surely be showing some signs of disappointment now.
- XIII/8 If he'd been hoping to become manager, he certainly didn't show it.
- XIII/9 If he'd been hoping to become manager, he certainly wasn't showing any signs of disappointment when I saw him.
- XIII/10 If he'd been hoping to become manager, he certainly hasn't succeeded in doing so yet.
- XIII/11 If he'd been hoping to become manager, he certainly hasn't been having much success recently.
- XIII/12 If John had been playing football, he'd certainly managed to keep the fact secret.
- XIII/13 If John had been playing football, his brothers had probably been doing so too.
- XIII/14 If he'd been hoping to become manager, he won't have achieved his ambition by the time he retires.
- XIII/15 If I'd been leaving at 6, I'd have liked to have gone by bus.
- XIII/16 If he'd been hoping to become manager, he'll have been feeling pretty disappointed since Mr. Smith's appointment was announced.
- XIII/17 If we'd been living in London, we'd have been going to a lot of concerts.
- XIII/18 If he'd been hoping to become manager in those days, his conduct usedn't to be a very good recommendation for him.
- XIV/1 If you'll have gone by the time he gets back, I intend to leave now, as I don't want to meet him alone.
- XIV/2 If you'll have gone by the time he gets back, I'm not staying.
- XIV/3 If you'll have gone by the time he gets back, it's going to be difficult to explain.
- XIV/4 If you'll have gone by the time he gets back, there won't be anybody to interpret.
- XIV/5 If you'll have gone by the time he gets back, I'll be leaving before you do.
- XIV/6 If you'll have gone by the time he gets back, I'd like to stay.
- XIV/7 If you'll have gone by the time he gets back, you'd be doing me a great favour by leaving this message for him.
- XIV/8 If you'll have gone by the time he gets back, I made a mistake when I told him you'd still be here.
- XIV/9 If you'll have gone by the time he gets back, I was making a mistake when I told him you'd still be here.
- XIV/10 If you'll have gone by the time he gets back, I've misled him.
- XIV/11 If you'll have gone by the time he gets back, I've been giving everybody misleading information.
- XIV/12 If you'll have gone by the time he gets back, I had hoped you would have had the sense to leave a message.

- XIV/13 If you'll have gone by the time he gets back, I had been hoping you'd have had the sense to leave a message.
- XIV/14 If you'll have gone by the time he gets back, he'll have made his journey in vain.
- XIV/15 If you'll have gone by the time he gets back, I'd have liked you to have warned him.
- XIV/16 The cook's been working all morning making you a special cake: if you'll have gone by the time it's ready, she'll have been going to all this trouble for nothing.
- XIV/17 If you'll have gone by the time he gets back, you'd have been showing more consideration for others (if you'd warned him).
- XIV/18 If—as you say—he'll have gone by the time we get back, he usedn't to be so inconsiderate when I first knew him.
- XV/1 If you'd have gone by the time he got back, I don't see why you told him to return so late anyway.
- XV/2 If he'd have gone by the time you got back, he obviously isn't telling the truth when he says he intended to wait for you.
- XV/3 If you'd have gone by the time he got back, it's going to be difficult to explain why you told him to come at that time.
- XV/4 If you'd have gone by the time he got back, it won't be easy to explain why you told him to return so late.
- XV/5 If you'd have gone by the time he got back, you'll no doubt be giving some thought to revising your system of recording engagements, so that this sort of thing can't happen again.
- XV/6 If you'd have gone by the time he got back, I'd like you to have warned him.
- XV/7 If you'd have gone by the time he got back, you'd be doing me a favour (if you were to keep a closer eye on your diary of engagements).
- XV/8 If you'd have gone by the time he got back, it was wise of you to put him off.
- XV/9 If you'd have gone by the time he got back, you were being unfair in not warning him.
- XV/10 If you'd have gone by the time he got back, he's told us the truth, hasn't he?
- XV/11 If you'd have gone by the time he got back, he's been telling us the truth, hasn't he?
- XV/12 If you'd have gone by the time he got back, I had hoped you would have warned him.
- XV/13 If you'd have gone by the time he got back, I'd been hoping you'd have warned him.
- XV/14 If you'd have gone by the time he got back, this fact will no doubt have made you realize at last that your system of recording engagements needs revision.
- XV/15 If you'd have gone by the time he got back, wouldn't it have been kinder to have told him not to return in the first place?
- XV/16 If he'd have gone by the time you arrived, he will no doubt

- have been spending at least part of this morning revising his system of recording engagements.
- XV/17 If you'd have gone by the time he arrived, you'd have been showing more consideration for others (if you'd told him not to come in the *first place*).
- XV/18 If you'd have gone by the time he arrived, you usedn't to be so forgetful when you worked with me.
- XVI/1 If the party will have been going an hour by the time we can get there, I suggest we don't go.
- XVI/2 If the party will have been going an hour by the time we can get there, I'm not going.
- XVI/3 If the party will have been going an hour by the time we can get there, I'm not going to go.
- XVI/4 If the party will have been going an hour by the time we can get there, I shan't go.
- XVI/5 If the party will have been going an hour by the time we can get there, I shan't be going.
- XVI/6 If the party will have been going an hour by the time we can get there, I should prefer not to go.
- XVI/7 If the party will have been going an hour by the time we can get there, you would be doing me a great favour by not accepting the invitation.
- XVI/8 If the party will have been going an hour by the time we can get there, I was wrong.
- XVI/9 If the party will have been going an hour by the time we can get there, I was making a mistake when I said we would get there for the opening.
- XVI/10 If the party will have been going an hour by the time we can get there, I have misled our hosts.
- XVI/11 If the party will have been going an hour by the time we can get there, I have been giving everybody misleading information.
- XVI/12 If the party will have been going an hour by the time we can get there, I had hoped you would refuse the invitation.
- XVI/13 If the party will have been going an hour by the time we can get there, I'd been hoping you'd refuse the invitation.
- XVI/14 If the party will have been going an hour by the time we can get there, we'll have gone to all this trouble in vain.
- XVI/15 If the party will have been going an hour by the time we can get there, I'd have liked you to have warned our hosts.
- XVI/16 If the party will have been going an hour by the time we can get there, we'll have been going to all this trouble in vain.
- XVI/17 If the party will have been going an hour by the time we can get there, you'd have been showing more consideration for our hosts by warning them.
- XVI/18 If the party will have been going an hour by the time we can get there, it used to be customary, when I was young, to warn one's hosts.

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- XVII/1 If the party would have been going an hour by the time you could get there, I don't see why you wanted to go at all.
- XVII/2 If the party would have been going an hour by the time you could get there, somebody's not telling the truth.
- XVII/3 If the party would have been going an hour by the time we could get there, I'm not going to shed tears over having missed it.
- XVII/4 If the party would have been going an hour by the time we could get there, I won't shed tears over having missed it.
- XVII/5 If the party would have been going an hour by the time we could get there, I won't be shedding any tears over having missed it.
- XVII/6 If the party would have been going an hour by the time you could get there, I'd like to know why you were so keen to go anyway.
- XVII/7 If the party would have been going an hour by the time you could get there, you'd be clearing up a mystery (if you could tell me why you were so keen to go).
- XVII/8 If the party would have been going an hour by the time you could get there, it was wise of you not to go.
- XVII/9 If the party would have been going an hour by the time you could get there, you were being wise when you decided not to go.
- XVII/10 If the party would have been going an hour by the time you could get there, John has told you the truth.
- XVII/11 If the party would have been going an hour by the time we could get there, John has been telling us the truth all along.
- XVII/12 If the party would have been going an hour by the time you could get there, I had hoped you would have warned your host.
- XVII/13 If the party would have been going an hour by the time you could get there, I had been hoping you would have warned your host.
- XVII/14 If the party would have been going an hour by the time you could get there, it will no doubt already have struck you that you didn't miss much by not going.
- XVII/15 If the party would have been going an hour by the time we could get there, it wouldn't have been much fun going there in any case.
- XVII/16 If the party would have been going an hour by the time you could get there, you will no doubt have been congratulating yourself on having had the foresight to decline the invitation.
- XVII/17 If the party would have been going an hour by the time you could get there, you would have been showing more consideration for your hosts by warning them.
- XVII/18 If the party would have been going an hour by the time you could get there, it used to be customary, when I was young, to warn one's hosts.

- XVIII/1 If you used to steal apples as a boy, I don't think it's a thing to boast about now.
- XVIII/2 If your father used to know the manager well, I'm hoping he'll give you the job.
- XVIII/3 If he used to be a thief, I'm going to tell the manager.
- XVIII/4 If he used to be a thief a few years ago, he'll no doubt try to forget it now.
- XVIII/5 If he used to be a thief a few years ago, he'll no doubt be trying to forget it now.
- XVIII/6 If he used to be a thief a few years ago, he'd no doubt like to forget it now.
- XVIII/7 If he used to be a thief a few years ago, we'd be acting dishonestly by not informing the manager.
- XVIII/8 If he used to be a thief a few years ago, at any rate he wasn't a very successful one.
- XVIII/9 If he used to be a thief a few years ago, he was telling lies when he said he'd never stolen a thing in his life.
- XVIII/10 If he used to be a thief a few years ago, he hasn't told any one *here* about it.
- XVIII/11 If he used to be a thief a few years ago, he's been hiding the fact very successfully.
- XVIII/12 If he used to be a thief a few years ago, he had reformed before he joined our firm.
- XVIII/13 If he used to be a thief a few years ago, he had been leading an honest life for some considerable time when I first met him.
- XVIII/14 If he used to be a thief a few years ago, he will have gone straight for some considerable time by the time he enters our employment.
- XVIII/15 If he used to be a thief a few years ago, he will have been going straight for some considerable time by the time he enters our employment.
- XVIII/16 If he used to be a thief a few years ago, you would have done us a service by informing us as soon as you found out.
- XVIII/17 If he used to be a thief a few years ago, you would have been doing us a service by informing us.
- XVIII/18 If he used to be a thief, he used, at least, to be able to avoid being found out.

¹The Roman numerals (I, II, etc.) refer to the "if"-clause; the Arabic numerals (1, 2, etc.), to the main clause. Thus, for example, XI/4 means that the tense in the "if"-clause is the *have/has been going* tense; and the tense in the main clause, the *will/shall go* tense.

The Bases of Speech, 3rd Edition, G. W. Gray and C. M. Wise. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1959, pp. 562.

People with no more than a nodding acquaintance with the business of language study recognize the manifold aspects of the subject. Depending on the background of the investigator, a language may be viewed as a physics, an algebra, a behavior, or a system of verbal skills to be taught. The more special our interests, however, the more we should realize the need of a panoramic view of the whole field to give perspective in our pursuit. *The Bases of Speech* is one of the very few books which attempt to meet such a need. As is frequently true with a work of such scope, its breadth constitutes its chief strength as well as the major reason for its inadequacies.

The book is divided into nine chapters, each dealing with one "basis" of speech. They are presented in the following order: social, physical, physiological, neurological, phonetic, linguistic, psychological, genetic, and semantic. There are 78 figures, more than half of which are of anatomical and neurological structures, and a balanced bibliography of over 200 entries.

The book begins with some general discussion of speech, distinguishing it from other media of communication, and introducing diverse concepts such as feedback, transmissibility, group dynamics, etc., in terms of their social function. A major failing of the book becomes evident almost as soon as the authors begin to make more specific statements. The confusion between the class "Speech" and one of its members "American speech," which permeates the book, is seriously misleading for the novice. Statements such as "the intelligibility of speech is dependent more upon the consonants than on the vowels..." can be meaningful only with due consideration to the design of the particular language. Page 54 shows neglect of the nature of accentual systems. Such terms as "force," "tonal element," "accent," and "emphasis" are interchanged frequently and no distinction is attempted between the levels at which the prosodic features may function. For example, the authors label regular rhythm "monotonous," but do not mention languages in which the relative durations of the phonological units are distinctive signals, not determined by speech style—Estonian, Italian, Japanese, etc.

However, most of the information about "speech," when translated to apply to American speech, is acceptable. The trouble is, of course, that the reader is not told when to and when not to translate.

The physics, physiology, and neurology chapters assume no

background in any of these fields. The illustrations and review-type problems are well selected and very helpful. The authors are careful in organizing the concepts and presenting them in an interesting and lucid way. There is some terminological carelessness—in different contexts of chapter 2, "tone" is used to mean pure tone, periodic sound, or just sound; on p. 113, the term "volume" is all too impressionistic to be useful—but the overall pedagogy is good. In connection with the physics and psycho-physics of sound, perhaps some exposition of the relevant instrumentation would be useful.

The phonetics chapter is based mostly on IPA, oriented to American English. Here, as in earlier chapters on the mechanics of speech, not enough emphasis is given to the dynamic aspect of speech sounds. It is well known by now that a stream of speech sounds cannot be properly regarded as a sequence of discrete phones juxtaposed in time. Frequently, the phones merge into each other in a continuum with no overt borders between them. In an utterance such as "where are you," any phonetician would be hard put to mark off the phones from each other in any non-arbitrary fashion. Conversely, if we do juxtapose sustained phones, as can be done in tape-splicing experiments, the result is usually not intelligible. Since beginning students in phonetics are always eager to generalize from their experience with the letters on a printed page, the *continuous* nature of the speech signal warrants extra attention.

In discussing regional variations, a more general map showing the major dialect areas of the United States defined by bundles of isoglosses would have been more instructive and interesting than the Louisiana maps.

Linguistics is presented somewhat unevenly. In a brief portion devoted to descriptive linguistics, one finds no discussion of phonotactics, morphophonemics, or syntax. Somehow, throughout the chapter, the authors fail to emphasize sufficiently the patterning of language, the *tout se tient* concept which is an operational axiom of structural linguistics. As a result, the linguistic units and sound changes frequently appear as isolated, independent entities rather than part of an overall design. The processes of language change described here range from the well-documented to the highly speculative. Considering that the authors have handicapped themselves by discussing these mainly on a synchronic plane, the attempt is surprisingly successful.

The latter part of the book is concerned with speech as it relates to personality, culture, and semantics. It discusses such controversial topics as the Whorf hypothesis, language origin,

and speech acquisition. One wishes for more discussion of the cognitive aspects in the psychology chapter and more semiotics in the one on semantics. Instead, both of these chapters are heavily oriented toward sociological considerations.

No mention is made of the quantitative aspects of language study such as Zipf's findings, Information Theory, redundancy, etc. Neither is there any discussion of the major contributions which are being made by the transformational approach to grammar. No detailed development of these subjects must be expected, but a survey book of this type should indicate somewhere that they actively exist.

The critical reader is likely to find many more failings in the chapter of his concern; only general considerations are evaluated here. Certainly this book is not intended for advanced treatment of any particular subject; the footnotes and the bibliography are helpful toward this purpose.

Despite these criticisms, for dozens of years, the *Bases of Speech* has brought insight to the beginner and perspective to the specialist about this most complex of human activities. It has kept up reasonably well with the developments in each of the areas it attempts to present. The authors "do not believe that anyone who is limited to a single viewpoint, or even two or three, in his understanding of the human communication can have a thorough grasp of the broader phases of speech in human behavior." Their book contributes much toward making explicit the interdependences between the many and diverse approaches to studying speech.

William S-Y. Wang
University of Michigan

Manual and Anthology of Applied Linguistics: For Use in the NDEA Foreign Language Institutes, Simon Belasco, editor. Washington, U. S. Office of Education, 1960. Offset.

The National Defense Education Act of 1958 was designed to increase educational opportunities for young men and women and to improve the teaching of certain subjects in American schools.¹ One of the provisions of this law was the establishment of centers in various colleges and universities, at which primary and secondary school teachers of foreign languages could improve their practical command of the languages and learn something about linguistics and its application to their professional activity. Twelve of these Foreign Language Institutes were held in the summer of 1959, four in the academic year 1959-60, thirty-six in the summer of 1960, and four were planned for 1960-61.² The *Manual and Anthology of Applied Linguistics* is intended as the text for the course in general and applied linguistics in these institutes.

It is a big book. Part I, the Manual, consists of a General Section (1-58), written by Simon Belasco, and sketches of five languages, separately paginated, by the co-authors: French (F 1-45) by Albert Valdman, German (G 1-46) by Samuel A. Brown, Italian (I 1-35) by Robert A. Hall, Jr., Russian (R 1-44) by Michael Zarechnak, and Spanish (S 1-58) by Ismael Silva-Fuenzalida. Part II, the Anthology, contains in its 203 pages thirty-five articles on language teaching, either general in nature or concerned with specific problems of the five languages, which appeared earlier in nine pedagogic journals.

The Manual was composed "at break-neck speed," we are told in the Preface, in a period of four months. Its basic orientation is said to represent a compromise between language specialists, who favored a course in pure linguistics, and language teachers, who wanted a presentation of ways to apply the results of linguistic science. It seems, to judge by the finished

¹Development of programs and research activity in foreign languages under this act have been publicized regularly in the *Linguistic Reporter*, e.g., Vol. I, No. 1 (Apr. 1959), No. 3 (Aug. 1959), No. 4 (Oct. 1959) and Vol. II, No. 3 (June 1960). See also Albert H. Marckwardt, "Linguistics and the NDEA," *Language Learning*, Vol. IX (1959), Nos. 3 and 4.

²A survey report of the 1959 Summer Institutes has been printed in full in *Modern Language Journal*, Vol. 44 (1960), No. 2, 59-63, and in *Hispania*, Vol. 43 (1960), No. 1, 56-61, and, in summarized form, in *The German Quarterly*, Vol. 33 (1960), No. 2, 179-181.

work, that the practitioners conceded much more than the theorists. The pages of this book are filled with highly technical material presented in a grim, no-nonsense style.

Experienced language teachers are not easily led to understand how linguistics may be relevant to their work—witness the many people for whom the "linguistic method" simply means more mimicry and a greater use of electronic devices. A course in applied linguistics must make clear that any language is a unique, complex system of habits, and that the simplest, most accurate description of the language is derived from a physical analysis of utterances which embody these habits. The course must point out that the difficulties of learning a second language can be predicted, in part, from a comparison of that language with the student's native tongue. It must show that effective language learning requires systematic development of new habits, chiefly through patterned exercises which involve substitution and transformation in typical utterances. A good teacher needs much more than this knowledge, of course. But he is not apt to understand the applicability of linguistics unless these general concepts transcend all the technical detail he must acquire in the course.

Essentially Belasco does make these points in his General Section, but one wonders if they are made as well as they might be. Belasco does a masterful job of condensing the basic procedures of descriptive linguistics into a few pages, using English to show how a language is analyzed. Unfortunately the neophyte reader is likely to become so befuddled by the profusion of detail that he loses sight of the purpose. What is needed here is not more "redundancy, redundancy, redundancy," as Belasco states in the Preface, but rather a more lucid exposition of principles. The Drills, which, after all, illustrate the core of how linguistics is applied, are good and are varied, but they are not nearly long enough nor arranged in a sequence for learning. A Bibliography provides the teacher with good sources of further information, but there is no annotation to tell him what might be read first. Perhaps a capable instructor who knows linguistics and has experience in language teaching can use this material to advantage. In other hands it is not likely to be very useful.

The five language descriptions, though they too tend to be terse and technical, do a better job with the theme of application. In general all five follow the same plan of organization: description of segmental phonemes, indication of frequent morphophonemic variation, analysis of the most common inflexional patterns and description of basic syntactic constructions. At each point there is discussion of possible interference from

English and an illustration of drills to inculcate the desired habits. Each section ends with a bibliography. For Italian and Russian, respectively, Hall and Zarechnak also discuss the relations of phonemes and orthography. Hall has a section dealing with the most common derivational morphemes of Italian. Zarechnak gives a meticulous, Prague School-type analysis of Russian phonotactics. Understandably, none of the co-authors has attempted to delve into semantic and cross-cultural problems or to describe vocal qualifiers. On the other hand, it is disappointing to note that only one of the sketches—Silva-Fuenzalida's description of Spanish—contains an adequate account of the language's intonation.

There is abundant evidence of the Manual's hasty composition. Belasco's use of *walks*, *seizes*, *heats* in Table 14 (p. 48) does not show the /-s, -z, -iz/ alternation that he intends to illustrate. Valdman has a section (F-9) describing the French uvular fricative under the heading "Dental Fricative /r/". Zarechnak, in a section entitled "Frequent Mistakes in Pronouncing Russian" (R-11), badly confuses phonetic and phonemic distortion as a result of English interference, and even includes one case of non-interference and one illustration of Russian interference in learning English. Typographic errors and omissions are fairly numerous. But these are minor matters, easily corrected in a new edition. The principal defect of the Manual is that those who can read it do not need it.

The Anthology contains a good selection of articles dealing with a wide range of descriptive and pedagogical topics. Inevitably someone will find a favorite essay missing, but that is not important. All the writings included are readable and illuminating and many of them are thought-provoking.

Charles W. Kreidler
University of Michigan

Reading and Word Study for Students of English as a Second Language, Kenneth Croft. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1960. Pp. xiii, 353.

Ten beloved American short stories and two dozen chapters of word-building exercises are tied together in this reader designed for a semesters' high intermediate work. The author claims his book will double the 2000-word vocabulary of the student, and the reviewer feels this claim is a modest one.

Procedurally, the book presents reading selections plus a well-organized word study plan forcing vocabulary expansion through systematic use of derivational affixes and related structural operations. The readings were rewritten within the 2000 word Michael West¹ vocabulary with exceptions generally footnoted.² If a student lacked any of the 2000 words on the West list, he should comprehend them through the context of the stories.

The authors represented include Washington Irving, Stephen Crane, Sarah Orne Jewett, Zane Grey, Mary E. Wilkins Freeman, Nathaniel Hawthorne, Sherwood Anderson, Ring W. Lardner, and Frank R. Stockton. Their ten stories are divided into twenty-four selections averaging six pages in length, followed by two pages of reading comprehension exercises and one page of lexical exercises based exclusively on the footnoted items.³ These twenty-four selections make up Part I of the book.

Part II contains twenty-four chapters dealing progressively with problems of word classes (including sentence frames) and the exchange of items from one word class to another.

If the author's plan were followed, the first reading selection would be followed by the first word study chapter of Part II, and so on.

There is no apparent attempt at control of structure, and one may infer from the author's preface that "high intermediate" students are those beyond basic structural problems. There is some structural recapitulation in the setting up of test frames for the word classes in Part II.

While one may assume that the student at this level has mastered the 2000 word West vocabulary, the footnotes in Part I

¹Michael West, editor, *A General Service List of English Words, with Semantic Frequencies and a Supplementary Word-List for the writing of Popular Science and Technology* (London: Longmans, Green & Co. 1953).

²Glossed items total 301.

³Testing 240 of the 301 footnoted words.

lead this reviewer to wonder whether a one-to-one glossary of extra items in the readings isn't after all false economy. For example, *recover* is glossed as "get back," while *quit* is glossed only as "stop." *Ribs* are "the curved bones along a horse's sides." *Adult* in the phrase *many adults* is glossed into a different word class, "full-grown" instead of "full-grown people" or "grown-ups."

Whisky and *beer* are glossed. Understandably absent from West's general service list, both words must rank high on lists of English words used by speakers of other languages. The reviewer does not wish to polemicize here on the merits of frequency counts, but questions the glossing of *whisky* as "a strong alcoholic drink made from grain" and *beer* as "a bitter drink made from grain." Even *sandwich* ranks among the 301 glossed items, and is further identified by a neat, thumbnail-sized marginal sketch. Many such sketches are used profitably throughout the reading selections.

If some of the foot-noted items seem bothersome, most of them should brighten class discussion. A casual sampling includes *hen-pecked husband*, *gossip*, *growl*, *folks*, *hush*, *soaked*, *drenched*, *shiver*, *groan*, *crawl*, *moan*, *gaze*, *jerk*, *fist*, *scream*, *stare*, *rattle*, *blush*, *wedding*, *glance*, *rear*, *get ahead*, *scrub*, *hope*, *bang*, *couple of*, *sick of*, *nickname*.

Nonetheless, some words are not glossed. *Oiler* introduced in Stephen Crane's "The Open Boat" (Selection 3), might be confused with some sort of oarsman because of its non-restrictive modifier: "The oiler, steering with one of the two oars in the boat, sometimes raised himself...." The illustration shows a boat being rowed with two oars. In Selection 4, the story continues: "And so the oiler, who was at the oars,...."

Obviously, the student knows *oil*. From context and illustration, the student knows that *oiler* is a person in this case. The teacher familiar with Part II of this book will know where to turn for *-er* words. If one followed the author's plan, Selection 3 should have followed Chapter 2 in the Word Study. But Chapter 2 does not talk about *-er* words. The affix *-er* is mentioned casually in Chapter 3. Happily, it is given the full treatment in Chapter 5, which handles "more nouns with underlying verb forms," with ample wordlists illustrating the use of various suffixes: *-er*, *-or*, *-ar*, *-ist*, *-ant*, *-ent* (leader, actor, beggar, typist, defendant, dependent); *-al* (approval); *-ure*, *-ture*, *-ature* (pleasure, mixture, signature); *-y*, *-ery*, *-ary* (injury, robbery, boundary); *-age* (package); *-ing* (meeting); and "miscellaneous pairs" like *compare-comparison*, *laugh-laughter*.

The student need not be confused upon meeting *oiler* in Section 3, provided his teacher introduces the book's index as a working tool. All suffixes are indexed.

Grammatical terminology in Part II is mostly traditional and takes up space which might better be used by longer word-lists and more exercises. There is little treatment of stress, limited to a brief list of verbs and nouns like *insult* that differ in syllable stress. Oral pattern practice exercises in which meaning forces a choice of form might well supplement the classwork of students using this book. Here again is a good book dependent upon a good teacher.

The ten rewritten stories vary from the originals. Stephen Crane⁴ began his "The Open Boat" this way:

None of them knew the color of the sky. Their eyes glanced level, and were fastened upon the waves that swept toward them.

The simplified version begins:

None of them knew the color of the sky. Their eyes were on the waves that came toward them.

This is not the book for a class in literature, and is certainly not the book for those whose scruples wince as much from simplified Chopin as from simplified short stories. But there are certainly students who need to learn how to read for pleasure, and many a practical teacher should welcome this constructive word-builder as the answer.

Before presstime, the reviewer prevailed upon a colleague to use the book for a day or two in a high-level class. His results, as might be expected from even a casual glance at the format of this book, were rewarding. The reviewer, against the explicit advice of the author's preface, used Part II in tutoring an absolute beginner who was of course unable to read the selections in Part I. Here again, the results were all to the good.

One might hope, therefore, that future editions of Part II could be coupled with structurally-controlled readings for beginning and low intermediate students. It might be a good idea, too, to use the words of Part I in the lists of Part II so that *oiler* should appear in the list of *-er* words.

⁴Stephen Crane, *Men, Women and Boats* (New York: Boni and Liveright, 1921).

The book emerges as an item useful to this profession and, judging by its author's high productivity, should portend the arrival of more of same to fill a crying need in the field.

Alexander Adams
University of Michigan

Teacher's Manual for Spelling Patterns, Frances Adkins Hall and Eleanor H. Brenes. Ithaca, New York: Linguistica, 1960. Pp. 137.

Spelling Patterns, A Review Speller, Frances Adkins Hall and Eleanor H. Brenes. Ithaca, New York: Linguistica, 1959. Pp. 134.

These two companion volumes present an excellent illustration of the kind of contribution structural linguistics can make to the teaching of spelling in the public schools. The work is intended for use primarily by students of junior high school age who already know how to spell, albeit badly, as a result of their elementary school training. Enough linguistics, explained in an easily understood way, is presented to guide both teacher and student through the course of study.

The teacher's manual has a brief discussion of the basic units involved, the phoneme and the grapheme, and of the methodology. All the vocabulary items in the *American Vest Pocket Dictionary* (Jess Stein, Editor, New York: Random House, 1951) were classified according to their canonical shapes. Then the list was checked against *The Teacher's Word Book of 30,000 Words* (Edward L. Thorndike and Irving Lorge, New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1944) in order to insure that the 5,000 most frequently used words in current American English had been included. A frequency count, as established in the *Teacher's Word Book*, was carried over into the teacher's manual where each word is marked as belonging to one of six frequency groups. This allows the teacher the opportunity to tailor the lists to suit the needs of individual classes, limiting the work to words with the highest frequency of occurrence if the group is slow-moving and including more of the less frequently occurring words for faster-moving groups. Numerous tests are supplied to meet the teacher's other pedagogical needs.

The student's workbook is prefaced with a set of vocabulary items which cover the extent to which English graphemes stand in a one-to-one correspondence with English phonemes. Each subsequent section deals with one type of departure from this norm. For example, items like *lap*, *bib*, *not*, and *rub* are considered as standing in a one-to-one correspondence with the sequences of English phonemes they represent. Allowances are made for dialectal divergencies and the teacher is advised to strike from the list those items which do not rhyme in the student's speech. For example, *god*, *cod*, and *dog*, *log* may be

struck from the list in which they occur if their vowel nuclei differ and the student does not make them rhyme. The first spelling irregularity treated is the graphic representation of /ə/ in unstressed syllables (in words like *pistol*, *atlas*, *consul*). Next, the non-functional habit of writing double consonants is discussed (in words like *comma*, *antenna*). Some derivation is also discussed so that the student may recognize detachable prefixes and suffixes and the variation they undergo. There are fifteen sections in all, including a final one which concerns the spelling of borrowed words not conforming to any of the patterns covered in the regular course of work.

Besides the attainment of accurate spelling, this reviewer feels that use of these volumes will have two important side effects on the student: 1. an unavoidable increase in his vocabulary and 2. a great willingness to use the dictionary.

In the words of the authors, there is no sugar coating to be applied, no short cut to be sought to the learning of English spelling. There is, however, an orderly method with which to proceed. One must state clearly and precisely where the spelling accurately represents the spoken word and where and *how* it does not. The organization of the material is such that the grown-up reader of this work will be surprised at the rather great amount of consistency that does exist in English spelling.

Congratulations are due the authors for having made a noteworthy effort to improve the teaching of spelling in our public schools.

Robert J. Di Pietro
Cornell University

FOR YOUR CONSIDERATION . . .

In Volume X, Numbers 3 and 4, *Language Learning* began the publication of thumbnail sketches of other journals devoted to some phase of language teaching in the hope that language teachers might find new sources of stimulus and help in their fields of interest. With the present issue we expand this column to include also descriptions of films, tapes, charts and other items which may interest and aid the language teacher.

THE MODERN LANGUAGE JOURNAL, published monthly January through May and October through December by the National Federation of Modern Language Teachers Association.

As the name implies this journal deals with teaching of modern languages, usually German, Spanish and French, and publishes articles on both linguistic and literary topics. A recent issue includes a survey of contemporary Portuguese literature, a critique of the "General Form," comments on the "role of translation," and an article on bilingualism. The journal also has a fairly large and up-to-date Book Review section.

LANGUAGE AND LINGUISTICS SERIES OF FILMS, distributed by the Indiana University Audio-Visual Service, Bloomington, Indiana.

This series of thirteen half-hour films might be used by teachers of general linguistics or language teaching methods to reinforce their classroom work. The films were originally prepared for television by Henry Lee Smith, Jr. of the University of Buffalo, and are aimed at giving the layman an introduction to the general field of linguistics. The films attempt to destroy certain misconceptions which native speakers of English have about their language, and show the linguistic approach in language learning, the teaching of reading and dialect investigation. They also deal with the sounds and grammar of English, the history of the Indo-European language family, and the history of English. All materials are presented by Mr. Smith, a wonderful showman.

The AMERICAN BOOK COMPANY and the ENGLISH LANGUAGE INSTITUTE have recently published CHARTS for use in the classroom.

American Book Company has a folio of fourteen charts, each 16" x 24". The cover makes a fold-over easel for easy display of the charts in the classroom. The charts depict scenes of American life in black and white, and can be used quite successfully in teaching vocabulary.

The English Language Institute has published enlarged versions of the sixteen charts which appear in the book *English Pattern Practices*. Measuring 20" x 34" each, the new charts are lithoprinted on colored linmaster and are easily moved. They are intended primarily for use in conjunction with the *Pattern Practices* book.

The American Book Company charts should be ordered from the company in New York. The English Language Institute charts may be obtained from Follett's Bookstore, 322 South State Street, Ann Arbor, Michigan.

NOTES AND ANNOUNCEMENTS

THE MICHIGAN LINGUISTIC SOCIETY held its 1960 Spring Meeting at Michigan State University—Oakland, May 14, 1960. John Winburne, acting for the president of the Society, Lawrence B. Kiddle, presided. MSU-O Dean Robert Hoopes announced the following program which had been planned around the theme "Linguistic Science and the Teacher," and was designed to serve as an introduction to linguistics for the interested person who has had no formal training in it, or who has read little of the technical literature.

James W. Downer "What is Structural about Structural Linguistics?"

Hans Kurath "Regional Differences in American English and the Teacher"

Robert Lado "Linguistics and Foreign Language Teaching"

Albert H. Marckwardt "Linguistics and English Composition"

The approximately two hundred college teachers of English, foreign languages and social sciences who attended the meeting were welcomed by MSU-O Chancellor Durwood B. Warner.

LANGUAGE LEARNING in cooperation with Michigan State University plans to make available in a special issue of the journal the speeches and comments made at this meeting, as well as a suggested "Bibliography for Beginners in Linguistics" that was distributed there.

John N. Winburne was elected President, and Ruth Hok re-elected Secretary-Treasurer for the coming year.

The Fall Meeting of the Michigan Linguistic Society is to be held on the campus of Wayne State University, December 3, 1960.

For further information, write to Ruth Hok, 3029 North University Building, Ann Arbor, Michigan.

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THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE INSTITUTE at the University of Michigan announces the following:

Fellowships and Scholarships for an M.A. in Teaching English as a Foreign Language for 1961-1962

Two Fellowships (full tuition plus \$1800 stipend) and
Four Scholarships (full tuition only) are offered for 1961-1962.

These awards are made available through a grant from the Ford Foundation. They are intended for teachers and students who wish to work toward the M.A. degree in Teaching English as a Foreign Language. The M.A. program includes courses in the following areas: phonological and grammatical structure of modern English, problems and methods of teaching English as a foreign language, American Studies or courses in the language and culture of the countries in which the students plan to teach. The program usually requires two semesters and one summer session of full-program study.

Applicants must be accepted for admission to the Horace H. Rackham School of Graduate Studies. Applications, transcripts, and three letters of recommendation must be submitted by March 1, 1961. Awards will be announced by April 1, 1961.

For further information and forms write to: Admissions Officer, ENGLISH LANGUAGE INSTITUTE, The University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan, U.S.A.

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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA, Edmonton, Alberta, Canada, in co-operation with the CANADIAN LINGUISTIC ASSOCIATION will conduct the fourth consecutive SUMMER SCHOOL OF LINGUISTICS during the Summer of 1961. The session will run for six weeks, from July 3 to August 11. A program of nine courses will be offered all carrying regular University credit:

- General Linguistics
- General Phonetics
- Contrastive Linguistics (French and English)
- Eskimo Language and Culture (Intensive)
- Linguistic Geography and Lexicography
- Culture and Language
- Teaching English as a Second Language
- Modern English Grammar
- History of the English Language

Prospective Canadian participants are eligible to apply for financial assistance to the Canada Council, 140 Wellington Street, Ottawa. United States citizens and other non-Canadians should direct their inquiries regarding financial assistance to the American Council of Learned Societies, 345 East 46th St., New York 17, N.Y. In addition, a limited number of small grants, some especially earmarked for particular courses, will be made available by the Canadian Linguistic Association. Inquiries should be addressed to Dr. M. H. Scargill, Chairman, Committee on Awards and Grants, Canadian Linguistic Association, University of Alberta in Calgary, Calgary, Alberta. Because of early final dates for applications, students are advised to request additional information and forms as soon as possible.

A bulletin giving full details about the 1961 Summer School of Linguistics will be available soon. In the meantime, all inquiries should be directed to Dr. E. Reinhold, Director, Summer School of Linguistics, University of Alberta, Edmonton, Alberta, Canada.

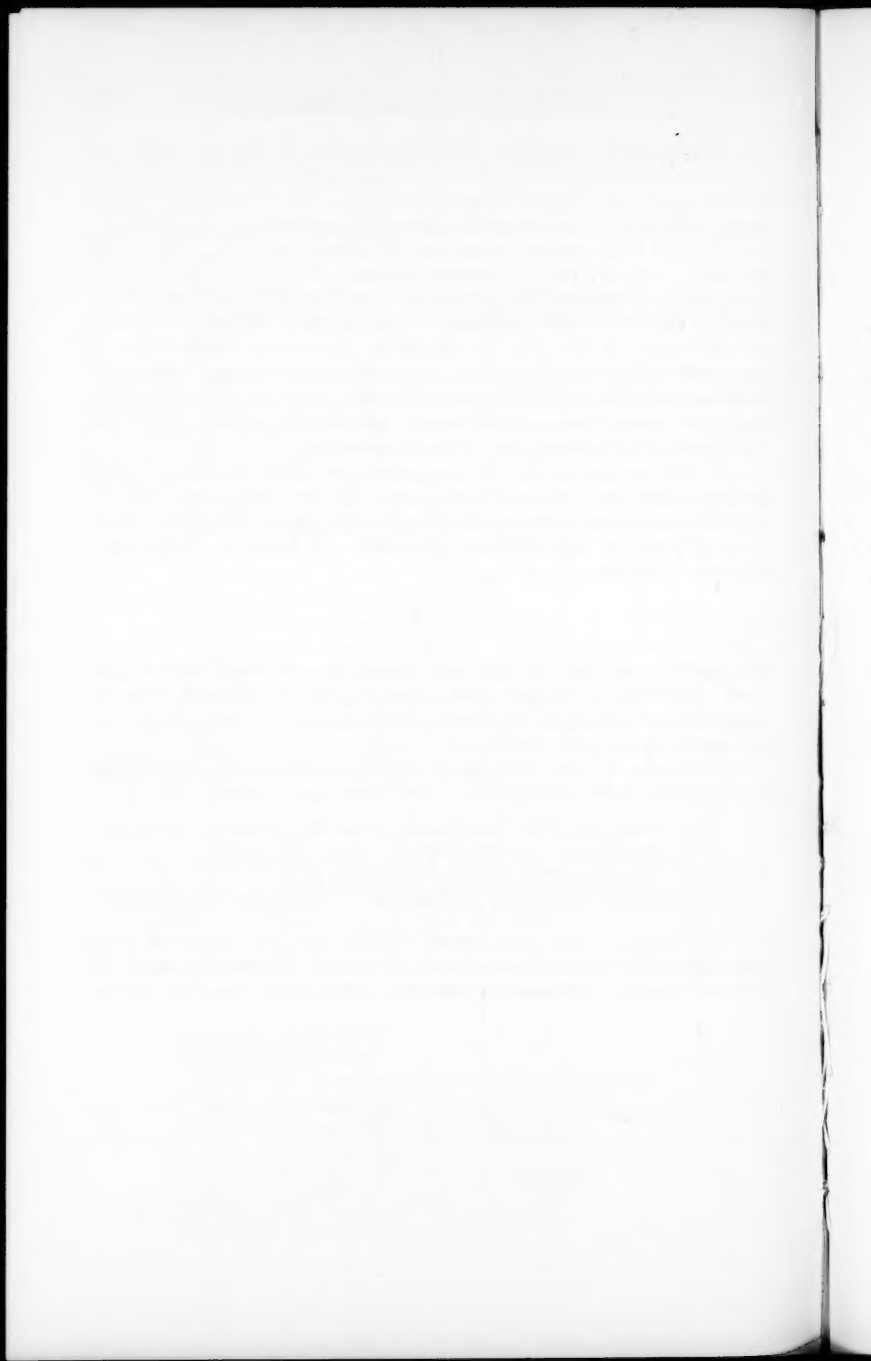
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Of special interest to Foreign Language teachers will be the 1961 CONFERENCE ON THE TEACHING OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES to be held at the Hotel Commodore, in New York City on April 14 and 15, 1961.

The topic of the conference will be LANGUAGE TEACHING IN SCHOOL AND COLLEGE. The four main panels will be:

THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS
THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS FOR COLLEGES
THE TRANSITION TO THE CLASSROOM
THE COORDINATION BETWEEN CLASSROOM AND LAB

Information and enrollment blanks may be obtained from the 1961 Northeast Conference Chairman, Professor Carl F. Bayerschmidt, Columbia University, New York 27, New York.



PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

This list constitutes acknowledgement for all publications received by *Language Learning* and not previously acknowledged. As space permits, reviews will be printed of those publications which make special contributions to the application of the principles and results of scientific language study to the practical problems of teaching and learning languages.

Abstracts of English Studies, Vol. III, Nos. 3-9 (Mar. -Sept., 1960) .

Bigelow, Gordon E., and Harris, David P., *The United States of America: Readings in English as a Second Language*, New York: Rinehart and Company, Inc., 1960.

Boletín de la Academia Columbiana, Vol. X, No. 34, (Feb. -Mar. 1960).

Cizí Jazyky ve Škole, Vol. III, Nos. 5-8, (1959/1960).

Contact, Vol. III, (Jan., 1960).

Croft, Kenneth, *Reading and Word Study: For Students of English as a Second Language*, New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1960.

Doty, Gladys G., and Ross, Janet, *Language and Life in the U.S.A.*, Evanston, Illinois: Row, Peterson and Company, 1960.

The Education Digest, Vol. XXV, Nos. 8, 9 (Apr., May 1960), Vol. XXVI, Nos. 1, 2 (Sept., Oct. 1960).

English Language Teaching, Vol. XIV, Nos. 2-4, (Jan. -Sept. 1960).

Epstein, Edmund L. and Hawkes, Terence, *Linguistics and English Prosody*, Buffalo, New York: *Studies in Linguistics*, Occasional Papers No. 7, 1959.

Duff, Charles, and Stamford, Paul, *German for Beginners*, second edition, New York: Barnes and Noble, Inc., 1960.

- Halle, Morris, *The Sound Pattern of Russian*, s'Gravenhage: Mouton and Company, 1959.
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